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ABSTRACT

This case study examines the motivation of two intermediate foreign language learners engaged in a remote language exchange partnership. A learner of English in Japan and a learner of Japanese in Australia completed language exchange activities using the telephone, Internet text chat, and e-mail over 10 weeks. Quantitative and qualitative methods were used to determine the effect that this language learning situation had upon the learners' motivation. It is argued that it is more productive for English as a Foreign Language instructors in Japan and Japanese as a Foreign language instructors abroad to attempt to stimulate integrative motivation rather than instrumental motivation in their intermediate level learners. The results of this case study add support to the claim that language exchange activities between foreign language learners are intrinsically motivating and provide learner autonomy. A focus on the nature of communication in the exchange activities revealed that motivational factors relating to self-confidence are key variables affecting motivation during real-time communication. Successful and unsuccessful communication was documented and analyzed. Strategies to improve language exchange communication are suggested. Recommendations are given to address pedagogical, technological, and organizational issues of remote language exchange partnerships. The integrative motivation of individuals engaged in remote language exchange partnerships is highlighted for future research. (Contains 112 references.) (Author/SM)

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University of Leicester

MA Applied Linguistics and TESOL

Dissertation

A Motivation Case Study of English/Japanese Language Exchange Partners Using Computer Mediated Communication and Telecommunication

Year: 2001

Robert Harrison Long

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List of Abbreviations

ACTFL = American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages
AMTB = Attitude and Motivation Test Battery
CS = Code Switching
L1 = First language
L2 = Second or target language
LEXP = Language Exchange Partnership
MOO = Multiple-user domain, Object
TME = Telecommunication MOO E-mail Oriented

ABSTRACT

This case study examines the motivation of two intermediate foreign language learners engaged in a remote language exchange partnership. A learner of English in Japan and a learner of Japanese in Australia completed language exchange activities using the telephone, internet text chat, and e-mail over a period of 10 weeks. Quantitative and qualitative methods were used to determine the effect that this language learning situation had upon the learners' motivation. It is argued that it is more productive for English as a Foreign Language instructors in Japan and Japanese as a Foreign Language instructors abroad to attempt to stimulate integrative motivation rather than instrumental motivation in their intermediate level learners.The results of this case study add support to the claim that language exchange activities between foreign language learners are intrinsically motivating and provide learner autonomy. A focus on the nature of communication in the exchange activities revealed that motivational factors relating to self confidence are key variables affecting motivation during real-time communication. Successful and unsuccessful communication was documented and analyzed. Strategies to improve language exchange communication are suggested. Recommendations are given to address pedagogical, technological, and organizational issues of remote Language Exchange Partnerships. The integrative motivation of individuals engaged in remote Language Exchange Partnerships is highlighted for future research.

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Barriers to Japanese/English Language Exchange

It was during the Meiji era (1868-1912) that the Japanese people first began to seriously study the English language. At that time it was realized that the translation of English was required to modernize the country (Torikai 2000). Then, about one hundred years later, a tremendous exchange occurred. With Japan's rise as an economic superpower in the 1980s and 90s, people in English speaking countries such as Australia, the U.S., the U.K., and Canada began to seriously study Japanese. The acquisition of trade and technology motivated language study in the Meiji era and continues to do so now for both Japan and its English speaking trading partners (GMCJS 1999; Horvat 2000; Miura 1998; Rose and Billinghurst 1998). Today, English/Japanese language exchange goes hand in hand with the exchange of goods and technology.

Even though there has been language exchange between Japan and the English speaking nations, it has not occurred easily. The difficulties arise from three major barriers which involve geographical, linguistic, and psycholinguistic distance. Figuratively, as far as East is removed from West, so is the Japanese language removed from an Indo-European language such as English. One consequence is the extensive time required for these speakers to learn each other's languages. It has been noted that for an English speaker to achieve upper proficiency in Japanese, it requires three to four times more study hours than is required to gain the same proficiency in French or Spanish (Rose and Billinghurst 1998, 2; Rubin and Thompson 1994, 14-15).

Much of this is due to the striking difference between the orthographic systems of English and Japanese. Samimy (1994, 29) notes that major affective and cognitive barriers for students of Japanese are created while having to learn the three different writing systems of Hiragana, Katakana, and Kanji. The Hiragana and Katakana characters represent syllables (46 each) and are used to write words and grammatical morphemes such as subject/object markers (Samimy 1994, 29). Katakana sounds correspond to Hiragana sounds but are written in a different script and are used primarily for foreign loan words. The idiographic and pictographic Kanji are the approximately 3000 characters of Chinese origin which are used in the Japanese writing system (Soga and Matsumoto 1978, cited in Samimy 1994, 29) . An example of a well known company name shown in these three of types characters and alphabet letters is given below:

Honda = ほんだ = ホンダ = 本田
(Hiragana) (Katakana) (Kanji)

Another barrier to English/Japanese language exchange is the immense geographic distance. Unlike the seemingly unbridgeable chasm between the two languages, computer communication technology is helping to shrink the geographic distance (at least in a virtual sense). Today the internet provides access to a wealth of authentic L2 materials for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and Japanese as a Foreign Language (JFL) learners and instructors. Even more importantly, the internet and other technologies can facilitate communicative contact for language exchange between native English and Japanese speakers.

Assessing the barriers thus far, the linguistic distance is unlikely to change much in the near future, but geographic distance is becoming less and less of a barrier as technology advances. In fact, the basis of this dissertation rests on the concept that remote Japanese and English language exchange can be conveniently achieved via language learning activities facilitated by the technologies of Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) and telecommunication. The question now concerns the third barrier of psycholinguistic distance. This author's research will take the perspective that a major cause of the psycholinguistic distance is a lack of motivation for foreign language learning.

1.2 Motivation for language learning

Motivation is vital to language learning achievement. Dörnyei (1994) unequivocally states that 'motivation is one of the main determinants of second/ foreign language learning achievement...' (273). Pulvermuller and Schumann (1994, 681), using their model of the neurobiological mechanisms of language acquisition, also indicate that the first condition that must be met in order for a learner to fully acquire a language is that he or she be motivated to acquire the target language.

Some have bemoaned the lack of achievement in EFL study in Japan (Honna 1995, 57-59) and JFL study abroad (Horvat 2000; Rose and Billinghurst 1998; Samimy and Tabuse 1992). As motivation is a main determinant of achievement, then low motivation is certainly a major cause contributing to this lack of achievement. A lack of motivation has been observed in both EFL learners in Japan (Benson 1991; Berwick and Ross 1989; Kamada 1987; Kimura *et al.* 2001) and JFL learners in America (Aida 1994; Kondo 1995; Samimy 1994; Samimy and Tabuse 1992; Watt 1997). There has been very little JFL motivation research completed in Australia, but high attrition rates have been noted among high school students (Marriott *et al.* 1994, 91).

A major contributing factor to the lack of motivation is the language distance. Of course language distance is a tangible barrier, but in terms of motivation it can cause a psycholinguistic distance as well. The greater the language distance is, the stronger the learner's belief must be that he or she can actually gain in proficiency. As will be observed in this case study, however, there are other additional factors which stunt motivational growth.

To begin to describe this lack of motivation as an obstacle to language exchange, some basic terms for language learning motivation are needed. In this area of language learning research two primary kinds of motivation were first identified: instrumental motivation and integrative motivation. This basic dichotomy of motivation was first defined by Canadian psychologists Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert in the early 1970's. Their major constructs distinguished "instrumental motivation" and "integrative motivation". Instrumental motivation is present when a learner has a utilitarian goal (such as to get a job or pass an examination). Integrative motivation occurs when a learner desires to meet the people of the target culture and to use the L2 communicate with them (Gardner and Lambert 1972, 3, 14; Richards *et al.* 1992, 238). The focus in this case study will be upon integrative rather than instrumental motivation. One reason is that motivation research completed in the 1990s built on earlier research (Gardner 1985a, 106) and suggested that instrumental motivation efficiently promotes foreign language learning only to the intermediate level (Dörnyei 1990, 62; Oxford and Shearin 1994, 15). Integrative motivation, on the other hand, is necessary for foreign language students to go beyond the intermediate level. Other disadvantages of a focus on instrumental motivation will be addressed in the literature review.

Obviously, to fulfill the integrative desire to use the L2 to communicate with the people of the target culture, there must be some form of communicative contact. But often in foreign language contexts, contact with native speakers of the target language has not been possible for many learners. Additionally, integrative motivation in the Gardnerian tradition involves 'attitudes toward the target language community' (Gardner 1982 cited in Dörnyei 1990, 46). This kind of attitude development is not feasible in the foreign language learning environment . Dörnyei (1990, 69) points out that learners may not have had sufficient contact with the target language community in order for attitudes toward that community to be developed.

Dörnyei's (1994, 281) major strategy for stimulating integrative motivation in foreign language learners is for teachers to set up activities which place the students into contact with native L2 speakers. Although a logical solution, individual contact with native L2 speakers for any meaningful duration has been severely limited in most foreign language classrooms.

1.3 Motivation and language learning activities between Language Exchange Partners

As a solution to the problem of contact between foreign language learners and native speakers , this case study suggests using Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) and

telecommunication to facilitate language learning activities. The suggested forum for learners wishing to learn each other's language is the remote Language EXchange Partnership (LEXP). The acronym LEXP is used as to not be confused with LEP (Limited English Proficiency) (Richards *et al.* 1992, 213). The characteristics of LEXPs and their communication protocols will be discussed at length in the literature review. Also, there will be discussion concerning the issue of terminology since language learning exchange between partners has come to be known as "Tandem Language Learning" (TLL) in recent European research (Little *et al.* 1999, 1). This author's research, however, will refer to this language learning situation as a "Language Exchange Partnership".

For the purposes of this case study, it is important to determine if remote LEXP activities are indeed motivating for learners. Based upon some limited empirical data, Ushioda (2000, 121) has explained that tandem language learners engaging in e-mail exchange have perceived it to be an intrinsically motivating activity. Ushioda refers to intrinsic motivation as being the learner's interest generated by participation in a task (Ellis 1994, 715). In the case Ushioda refers to, the task was language exchange via e-mail. Ushioda argues that TLL/LEXP activities provide learner autonomy which is the basis for this intrinsic motivation. Based on Ushioda's research, and other anecdotal evidence from various TLL and LEXP projects (Appel 1999; LEVERAGE 1999c; Little *et al.* 1999; Donaldson and Kötter 1999) it does appear that remote LEXPs have some motivational value. To further LEXP motivation research this author's research attempts to replicate Ushioda's findings and answer the following two questions:

1. What motivational components are associated with remote LEXP activities?
2. What are the characteristics of these components?

Since remote CMC can facilitate cross-cultural exchange (Warschauer 1995, 47), in addition to cross-linguistic exchange, integrative motivation will initially be ear-marked for investigation. If researchers can more completely understand the motivation of learners engaged in remote language exchange partnerships, perhaps that motivation can be maximized in an effort to increase language learning achievement.

The single communication channel of e-mail exchange (a reading and writing activity) was found to be motivating in Ushioda's research. In an effort to search for more motivational possibilities, the additional real-time communication channels of MOO (Multiple-user domain, Object Oriented) and the telephone were used in this study. In addition to the feature of real-time communication, the use of the telephone also facilitated listening and speaking activities. As a side note, Donaldson and Kötter (1999, 532) have explained that MOO is an obtuse expression where "Objects" actually refers to the words used in text-based virtual reality environment. Many know this technology simply as "internet text chat".

The two participants in this case study were an EFL learner with Japanese as a first language, (L1) living in Japan and a JFL learner (English L1) living in Australia. After completing the first lesson using internet video conferencing equipment, the participants completed nine more English /Japanese language exchange lessons using the technologies of the telephone, MOO, and e-mail. Quantitative and qualitative methods will be used to categorize and interpret the various forms of collected data in an effort to determine the effect that this language learning situation may have had upon their language learning motivation.

2. Review of related literature

2.1 Guiding the motivational focus

Investigation into motivation for language learning began in the late 1940s, and was carried out through the 1950s and 60s, but research in this area flourished significantly in the 1970s and 80s (Gardner 2001). Then, in the early to mid nineties, numerous articles were published which renewed research into L2 motivation (Crookes and Schmidt 1991; Dörnyei 1994; Gardner and Tremblay 1994a; Gardner and Tremblay 1994b; Oxford, 1994; Oxford and Shearin 1994, Pulvermuller and Schumann 1994; Warschauer 1996a).

This ever expanding body of literature is a testament to the complexity of this subject. A small study of motivation, then, must place a greater focus on particular aspects of motivation with a lesser focus upon others. This selective review of literature will begin from two primary perspectives, that of the language learning context and that of the individual language learner. Dörnyei (1994) begins to delineate aspects of the motivational context to be considered as he expresses, 'the exact nature of the social and pragmatic dimensions of L2 motivation is always dependent on *who* learns *what* languages *where*.'(275). The introduction to this case study mentioned that L2 motivation is also dependent upon the temporal aspect-- *when*.

The contextual factors of *who*, *what*, *where*, and *when* in the research of this case study are fixed and can easily be labeled as follows:

Who:	A Japanese subject and an Australian subject
What:	The Japanese subject studies English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and the Australian subject studies Japanese as a Foreign Language (JFL)
Where:	Japan and Australia respectively
When:	the year 2001

The individual causative factor of *why* these particular people are studying these particular languages in their given contexts is not so easily articulated. Once the reason *why* a person is studying a particular language has adequately been described, the possibility of positively altering that reason becomes stronger. Therefore, the focus of this literature review will be upon the types of motivation that may exist within these individual language learners (and others in their context) in an effort to discover how motivation can be more easily stimulated. It is worth noting that Dörnyei (2001, 16) now advocates a combination of perspectives from the society and the individual.

Oxford and Shearin note that, even though instructors are often unacquainted with the specifics of their language students' motivation, 'the source of the [students'] motivation is very important in a practical sense to teachers who want to stimulate students' motivation' (1994, 15-16). Dörnyei also feels that, in the past, motivation research has not placed sufficient effort into answering the question of how teachers can motivate language learners (1994, 274). Many Japanese and English foreign language teachers are indeed interested in motivating their learners. It is hoped that this case study can provide some insight into the motivation of their students and suggest a specific learning situation to improve it.

In the introduction, only two types of motivation were referred to: instrumental and integrative motivation. A reasonable query regarding this dichotomy is: Which one may more easily stimulate a large number of students? In the contexts of EFL in Japan and JFL abroad, it will be argued that teachers are more likely to stimulate integrative motivation.

2.2 The instrumental orientation of EFL in Japan and JFL in America and Australia

Orientation is one of Gardner's terms meaning a goal (Dörnyei 2001, 48). Dörnyei (1994) advocates developing learners' instrumental orientation or goals by 'discussing the role [the] L2

plays in the world and its potential usefulness both for themselves and their community'(281). Samimy and Tabuse (1992, 390) provide this same suggestion for the JFL context and add that guest speakers from business corporations may be invited to enrich the learners' motivation to study Japanese. Undoubtedly this reinforcement would include outlining the many instrumental benefits resulting from Japanese proficiency. The difficulty with trying to stimulate this type of motivation is that high school, college, and university students may have already made decisions about their future careers which may, or may not, include learning a foreign language as a goal.

Above are examples of how teachers may attempt to stimulate instrumental motivation. What is often over-looked, though, are the external factors which reach far beyond the influence of guest speakers and teachers. One strong influence is the world economy. Miura (1998, 4) explains that there was a very direct connection between the boom of interest in JFL study in the U.S. and Japan's "bubble" economy. Australian JFL student numbers also peaked in the 1980s along with the economic boom in Japan. This rise in the number of JFL students is referred to as the "tsunami" (tidal wave) (Lo Bianco 2000, 10).

Another influence on foreign language study is technology. It has been reported that 80% of the world's information stored on computers is now in English (Crystal 1997, 109). This fact certainly is adding fuel to the current boom in EFL learning worldwide. Crystal (1997, 110) has reported, though, that the number of non-English language users on the internet is increasing and is probably surpassing the number of English-speaking users. Perhaps it is only a matter of time when the billions of non-English speakers in the world will have stored their information on computers.

The point being made is that instrumental motivation can be very unstable as it is influenced by external variables such as technology and the world economy. Before delving into the strength and relative stability of integrative motivation for an L2, some contextualized examples will be given of why it is not advisable to place too much emphasis on instrumental goals.

Horvat (2000) notes that for many Australians, Japanese proficiency is often associated directly with career enhancement. This may exist more in the public perception than in reality as the business sector is skeptical. Public support, however, for Japanese language education in Australia has been very strong. This has resulted in significant numbers of JFL students. There were nearly 180,000 Australians studying Japanese in 1993 of which 100,000 were public school children (1). According to a survey completed in 1997, the Japan Foundation (1997, cited in Lo Bianco 2000, 1) reported at that time that Australia had replaced China in second place after Korea for having the highest number of JFL students.

Now that Japan's economic bubble has burst, public perception and support could align itself with the business sector's perspective in Australia. An indication of this possible trend is a recent newspaper headline which read "Japan-Aussie relationship losing its spark"(Goodall 2001). It remains to be seen, though, if this trend will continue. In contrast to these cyclical trends in JFL, a more stable state of limited EFL instrumental motivation can be found in Japan.

A great deal of evidence exists that most Japanese do not need English to function at work. It is difficult to arrive at an exact figure for the number people who actually need to use English in their jobs, but initially it is helpful to consider Japanese society's need for English. Based upon studies completed by the Japanese education ministry, Torikai (2000) indicates that 80 to 90 % of the Japanese population needs only a basic (current junior high curriculum) level of English to function in Japanese society.

Visitors to Japan will concur with the English level requirement referred to above as it can be observed that some basic English reading ability is needed for important environmental print. The English which appears in business signs, advertising media, and on products such as clothing, appliances, etc., is in many cases displayed with no Japanese translation. The motivation to read English at this level could be related to a more general motivation towards being an educated member of society.

It is difficult to know exactly what the English reading level is of the average Japanese, but based on the experience of many English educators in Japan, most high school graduates are novice learners of English (Duncan 2001). Due to the existence of English environmental print,

reading skills at a junior high level could certainly be maintained long after high school graduation. The condition of the other language skills, however, certainly would atrophy if not reinforced, which is exactly what happens because Japanese is the L1 of nearly 98% of the population (Japan Statistics Bureau 1999).

In terms of oral proficiency, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) scale indicates that an advanced level is required to satisfy even limited work requirements (Rubin and Thompson 1994,17). Based on the observations above, it appears that the majority of Japanese do not possess a English level that is high enough to use in an English-speaking work environment. This is not the only indication which suggests this. Wharton (1993) has reported that 11% of the adults in the Japanese population are studying English at any one time (147). Since most high school graduates would have the maximum possible level of intermediate-high (Duncan 2001), further study as an adult would be required to move up to a level required for limited work requirements. Other factors are also evident which demonstrate that trying to increase instrumental motivation among Japanese EFL learners is not a reasonable option.

One of the core reasons that English is studied in Japanese schools after primary school is for taking tests which determine acceptance into high schools, colleges, and universities. Berwick and Ross (1989, 196) concur with other researchers (Ratzkliff 1980 cited in Berwick and Ross, 1989, and Kamada 1987) that the university entrance examination system distorts and channels Japanese students' motivation into a narrow instrumental focus through high school and into university. National universities are the most prestigious of institutions (Okugawa 1993, 195) and preparing for the entrance exams to enter them motivates students instrumentally (Kimura *et al.* 2001, 63). Ultimately, then, most Japanese need English only for the purposes of test taking, which is an instrumental motivation that exists for only a limited duration of time. This means that after taking university entrance English exams, instrumental motivation (for all intents and purposes) has run its course for most Japanese EFL learners.

There is other evidence of the relative unimportance of English skills to the careers of most Japanese. It was found that even high achieving university students in Japan were not highly instrumentally motivated. Brown, Robson, and Rosenkjar in their 1996 motivation study of Japanese university students found after their administration of Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) (Gardner 1985c) and other tests, that a basic tenet of instrumental motivation seemed to be contradicted. One of the tenets being that high achievement follows high instrumental motivation. High instrumental motivation and high achievement did not parallel each other in this case. The high and middle proficiency groups were less instrumentally motivated on average than the low proficiency group. Interestingly, they found the high proficiency group to be more highly integratively motivated on average. They note that 'Perhaps on average these students are not studying at Temple [University Japan] to become economically or socially successful, but rather to become closer to the target (i.e., American) community...' (64). Similarly, a sample of 1027 Japanese EFL students (Kimura *et al.* 2001, 47,66) found the largest portion of their motivational makeup to be composed of intrinsic and integrative components.

Integrative motivation, by definition, is when a learner wishes to communicate with people from the target culture. The strength of integrative motivation is the stability of its goals. Both the culture and character of a nation prove to be much more stable as a goal than instrumental language goals related to career. The next section will explore the importance of integrative motivation and why it holds the highest possibility of being stimulated by teachers.

2.3 Gardner's conception of the integrative motive

Dörnyei and Clément (2000, cited in Dörnyei, 2001, 51), commenting about an EFL context, found integrativeness to be the most powerful component of their participants' affective disposition toward the L2. Dörnyei (2001) refers to the integrative motive as being the 'most elaborate and researched aspect of Gardner's motivation theory'(49). Gardner (1985a) suggests that it is clear that *Integrativeness* and *Attitudes Toward the Learning Situation* cause motivation (see Figure 2.1 on the following page). Following this, aptitude and motivation cause language learning achievement (158). These two primary causes of achievement can compensate for each others' deficiencies as Dörnyei (1998, 117) explains that strong motivation can

compensate for any lack in aptitude and even a poor learning situation. Thus, if instructors can stimulate integrativeness and supply a language learning situation which is likely to produce positive attitudes, achievement will be produced despite aptitude deficiencies (which may be exacerbated as language distance increases). The quantitative measures of the participants' motivation will be explained using Gardner's conceptualization of the integrative motive below:

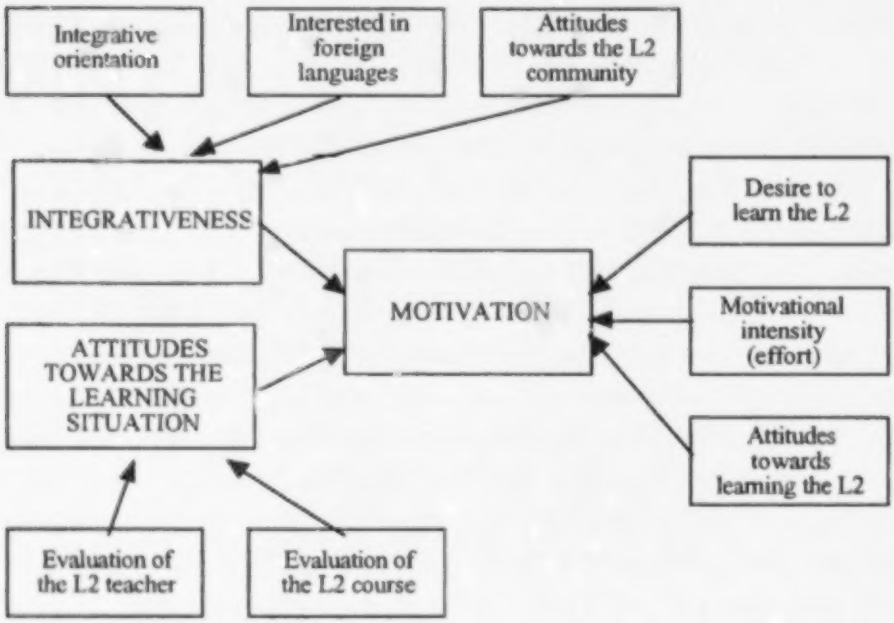

Figure 2.1 Gardner's conceptualisation of the integrative motive (Dornyei 2001, 50)

Another distinct part of Gardner's theory is the standardized motivation test instrument, the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) (1985c). The multiple sections of AMTB test all of the factors feeding into Gardner's conceptualization of the integrative motive above. *Evaluation of the L2 teacher* was not required in this case study as it involved a non-classroom situation. The first section of the AMTB contains *Attitudes toward the learning situation* which focuses on the classroom which was not directly relevant to this language learning situation. It was necessary, then, for attitudes toward this specific language learning situation to be measured by other means. Qualitative methods were used for this measure and figure prominently in the discussion of the results. Interestingly Dörnyei (2001) notes that negative experiences with teachers, and in classrooms, can cause demotivation (142-145). These potentially negative feeds are effectively cut with LEXPs.

2.4 Dörnyei's framework for L2 motivation

Gardner (1985a) views L2 motivation from the field of social psychology. Dörnyei, on the other hand, in the past has viewed L2 motivation from the perspective of individual psychology and educational psychology. In his research of general motivation, Dörnyei (1994) found that 'Motivational psychologists...have been looking for the *motors* of human behavior in the *individual* rather than the social being' (274). This is an important distinction as Dörnyei's Framework (see Table 2.1) can be used along with Gardner's conceptualization of the integrative motive to provide a more detailed description of motivation at the individual level (see *Learner Level*). This is especially useful for case study research and is the reason why Dörnyei's Framework was chosen to guide the design of the qualitative instrument used in this

case study.

The *Learning Situation Level* provides details that are connected to Gardner's *Evaluation of the L2 course* in his conceptualization of the integrative motive. Like Gardner's *Evaluation of the L2 teacher*, however, Dörnyei's *Teacher-Specific and Group-Specific Motivational Components* are also not applicable to this case study, hence the sub-components have not been given (see appendix i for full version).

LANGUAGE LEVEL	Integrative Motivational Subsystem Instrumental Subsystem
LEARNER LEVEL	Need for Achievement Self-confidence * Language Use Anxiety * Perceived L2 Competence * Causal Attributions (the learner's perception of past L2 performance) * Self-Efficacy (the learner's belief about his or her ability to reach the target level of proficiency)
LEARNING SITUATIONAL LEVEL	
Course-Specific Motivational Components	Interest Relevance Expectancy Satisfaction
Teacher-Specific Motivational Components	(NA)
Group-Specific Motivational Components	(NA)

Table 2.1 Dörnyei's Framework of L2 Motivation (Dörnyei 2001,113)

The components in Dörnyei's *Learner Level* were used in guiding the observations of the participants and will be used extensively in the qualitative data classification, description of the subjects' motivation, and the results of this dissertation. These *Learner Level* components also come into play as the difficulties with EFL motivation in Japan and JFL motivation abroad are described in the following section.

2.5 EFL and JFL learner affect

A recent study of EFL motivation in Japan supports the idea that '...Japanese learners may not be so easily motivated to learn English'(Kimura *et al.* 2001, 61). It has been shown that instrumental EFL motivation among the general population is low and a very small percentage of the adults in the Japanese population are studying English at any one time. Added to this, negative attitudes towards EFL in Japan are also evident.

Kamada (1987) addresses attitude when she observed that, for many Japanese EFL students, burnout results after cramming for exams and that negative attitudes develop once English is associated with "Exam Hell" (18). The negative attitude towards English carries on through high school and beyond. Berwick and Ross (1989, 206) further the description of these learners exiting high school who have had to fiercely compete for the limited number of openings at university. This results in a learner who shows up in university classes as '...a kind of timid,

exam-worn survivor with no apparent academic purpose'. Benson's (1991) study adds to this description as he discovered that Japanese university students exhibited little confidence in their listening and speaking ability. Possibly, this is a result of previous English learning in junior and senior high with its over-emphasis on translation and memorization (40). It is important to note that attrition is not a factor since EFL is a compulsory subject from junior high and even up to the first year of college or university.

Unlike Japan where most EFL classes are compulsory, American and Australian high schools, colleges, and universities offer JFL as an option (Lo Bianco 2000; Marriott *et al.* 1994; Watt, 1997). Whether the subject is compulsory or optional can determine learner population size. This may be one of the reasons so little motivation research has been completed with regard to JFL. Some research in JFL has been performed in America, but very little has been accomplished in Australia where there are more JFL learners per capita (Lo Bianco 2000, 1). Drawing upon this small research base, it does appear that JFL students also experience motivational difficulties.

Despite the high instrumental motivation of some Australian and American JFL students, there is a high attrition rate among this same population of learners (Marriott *et al.* 1994; Samimy and Tabuse 1992). The attrition rate has been reported to be as high as 80% among post secondary American students (Mills *et al* (1987). cited in Samimy 1994, 29) and up to 53.1% among Australian high school students (Marriott *et al.* 1994, 91). Affective factors such as unfamiliarity with a non-cognate language (Samimy and Tabuse 1992, 393), and classroom anxiety (Aida, 1994, 162) have been cited as possible causes of this attrition. It has been noted that not having the experience of studying Japanese in high school also contributes to attrition (Watt 1997, 330). Aida (1994) has pointed out that some attrition may be caused by other factors. She cites reasons such as students not having room in their class schedule for an elective Japanese course, or choosing to study a non-language Japanese course such as art, culture, or history. Marriott *et al.* (1994, 91) reported these causes as well, but in the end 44.8% of the Australian high school learners they studied did not continue because of the difficulty of the subject.

Of course the language distance can not be changed, but anxiety is something that can be addressed by instructors. Aida found in her study of JFL anxiety 'that a fair amount of anxiety exists in the Japanese foreign language classroom' (1994, 162). Samimy and Tabuse's study (1992, 394) also found that negative changes in motivation could be attributed to teachers not creating a 'secure and comfortable' learning atmosphere. Language use anxiety is a factor in Dörnyei's *Learner Level* of motivation and will be addressed in detail in the data analysis of this case study.

Drawing from Dörnyei's *Learner Level* of motivation, Kondo applied the components of self efficacy and causal attributions to her American *shin nisei* (new second generation) JFL learners. Additionally, she addressed the students' goal-setting, which is also included under Dörnyei's *Learner Level* component of *Need for Achievement*. Kondo (1999) concluded that her students valued verbal communication highly and many discontinue studying Japanese because they see little value in an academic literacy skill such as Japanese literature, which is emphasized in the departmental curriculum (84). Samimy and Tabuse (1992, 390) noted that the attitude of the students in their study shifted to the negative from the autumn to the spring quarter. In these instances, JFL students not only lost interest, but even developed negative attitudes toward JFL classes.

2.6 Dörnyei's Integrative Subsystem Components

Dörnyei (1990) explains that the integrative motivational subsystem is less homogeneous than the instrumental subsystem and he provides elaboration of the integrative subsystem (65). This is the reason why Dörnyei's framework is useful in looking at the integrative motive because it includes subsystem components which more fully describe integrative motivation in foreign language contexts. Dörnyei identifies four main components of the integrative subsystem below (the complete description of the sub components is available in appendix i).

Dörnyei's Integrative Subsystem Components

1. Interest in foreign languages, cultures, and people
2. Desire to broaden one's view and avoid provincialism
3. Desire for new stimuli and challenges
4. Desire to integrate into the new community

The details of these components will be referred to in the description of the qualitative research design of this case study since they were used in the design of the structured one-to-one interviews with the participants. These integrative subsystem components are useful in the next section for considering the possibilities for increasing integrative motivation.

2.7 Possibilities for increasing integrative motivation

Berwick and Ross (1989) conducted a longitudinal study (150 hours of English instruction) of first-year Japanese university students which examined how their motivation changed during that time (197). They found that an 'experimental dimension...begins to replace the entirely instrumental motivation that precedes it'. Benson (1991, 37) suggests that this "experimental dimension" may include a wish to study abroad and the belief that English widens one's horizons. Berwick and Ross finally conclude that university English study may indicate 'the beginnings of the developmental period...which eventually leads to the experimental focus of adult motivation to learn a foreign language'(208).

Dörnyei's integrative subsystem components, *Desire to broaden one's view and avoid provincialism* and *Desire to become integrated into the community* can begin to appear in Japanese universities. *Desire to become integrated into the community* in this context is usually a temporary situation such as when using the target language while traveling. Berwick and Ross note that the belief that "English widens one's horizons" (1987, 207) was found among the university students they studied and that exchange programs and homestays seemed to motivate learners to improve their proficiency. They attribute this belief to the learner's perceptions of their prospective use of the language. This stands to reason as Ryan (1997) also found that Japanese university students' motivation to learn English was quite low when their need for the target language seemed remote (215).

Dörnyei (1994, 281) provides some suggestions for improving motivation at the integrative part of the language level. He suggests inviting interesting native speaker guests and promoting student contact with native speakers through exchange programs and as pen pals. Samimy and Tabuse (1992), in a similar vein, suggest that 'Instructors should encourage learners to have informal contacts with native speakers of Japanese outside of the classroom. Collaborative efforts can be made...to set up an exchange program in which American students in a Japanese program and Japanese ESL students can help each other with their respective languages.' (394). This is not to say that instrumental motivation is not helpful as Kimura *et al.* (2000) found that after intrinsic and integrative motivation, instrumental motivation was the second largest factor. Others have also noted the contribution instrumental motivation makes (Marriott *et al.* 1994, 90; Samimy and Tabuse 1992, 390). Integrative motivation, however, involves a desire to interact with the target group, therefore, lack of opportunity to do this could possibly stunt the growth of this component. One of the key features of remote LEXPs is the contact between native speakers. Contact, it is proposed, would stimulate growth of integrative motivation which some feel (Dörnyei 1990, 62; Oxford and Shearin 1994, 15) is needed to go past the intermediate level.

As can be seen above, a major strategy for stimulating integrative motivation in foreign language learners is for teachers to set up activities which put the students into contact with native L2 speakers. As noted in the introduction to this case study, however, contact with native L2 speakers for any meaningful duration is severely limited in most foreign language classrooms. Also, it has been suggested that using CMC and telecommunication for remote language learning activities between LEXPs conveniently facilitates individual learner contact with native

L2 speakers. In the EFL and JFL contexts being considered, foreign language motivation attrition and negative affect are significant problems. Trying to increase integrative motivation is one possible solution. This case study suggests that LEXPs can possibly accomplish this by providing learner autonomy and eliminating the potentially demotivating aspects of teachers and classes. At this juncture it is important to review the research of how technology has come to facilitate remote LEXPs.

2.8 The Computer Assisted Language Learning evolution to Computer Mediated Communication (CMC)

Technology appeared in the 1980s in the guise of "Neo-Skinnerian" teaching machines (Skinner 1968) to be used for language learning. This extended the influence of behaviorism in language teaching as computers were 'hailed as the tireless taskmasters, allowing the foreign language student endless access to patient and non-judgemental drill and practice' (Lafford and Lafford 1997, 215). Warschauer (1996b, 3) refers to this time as the "behavioristic" phase of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL).

In the 1990s, multimedia became prevalent, and beyond being viewed as a teaching machine the computer came to be seen as a tutor or equal partner (Schwienhorst 1998, 119). An example of software designed from this perspective is Nihongo Partner (Tsutsui *et al.* 1998). This software features simulated interaction using video clips of native speakers. Although such software as this provides a more realistic activity for practice, it still does not provide authentic communication. With regard to this, Schwienhorst points out that human to human communication and human-to-computer communication must be distinguished. He does this by calling human-to-human communication "interaction" and human to computer communication "interactivity". While comparing interaction and interactivity, it must be realized that in many cases, that human communication with a computer is often reduced to the on-off command which is controlled by the click of a mouse (Stone, 1995 cited in Schwienhorst 1998, 119). That is not to say that human to computer communication has not evolved. Now foreign language learners have access to a wealth of authentic materials via the internet that former generations of foreign language learners were not able to enjoy.

As use of the internet became widespread in the latter part of the 1990s, the view of the computer as tutor or equal partner (even though useful for practice) became de-emphasized. As will be seen, the most valuable development for technology enhanced language learning has become Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC), in which the role of the computer is to provide an environment for human to human interaction (Warschauer, 1996a, 2). This was inevitable as new internet technologies such as e-mail and MOOs became widely available. Warschauer (1996b, 9) notes that even though CMC has "...existed in its primitive form since the 1960s...", it was not until the 1990s that worldwide proliferation of computers ensued with communication becoming a significant use for these machines. Warschauer states boldly that CMC " is probably the single computer application to date with the greatest impact on language teaching"(1996b, 9).

The two types of CMC are synchronous "real-time" discourse and asynchronous"time-lapse" discourse (Beauvois 1997, 166). The most common form of asynchronous communication has been e-mail. The most common type of synchronous communication has been MOO, but synchronous communication may involve one or any combination of audio, video, and MOO.

The most ambitious project completed to date with synchronous and asynchronous CMC and language exchange partners was the LEVERAGE project (LEarn from Video Extensive Real Atm Gigabit Experiment), which ran from 1996 to 1998. The project's mission was to 'set out to demonstrate how the use of multimedia broadband technology can support rapidly expanding language learning needs.' (LEVERAGE 1999a). The institutions involved were the University of Cambridge, Institute National des Télécommunications (Paris), and Universidad Politécnica de Madrid. The language exchange partners switched roles of tutor (L1) and learner (L2) while in video conference and completed tasks using high quality audio and video (with recording capabilities), multimedia courseware, and dictionaries. E-mail was also exchanged between sessions. Technological and pedagogical aspects were studied in this project, however there was

no specific study of learner motivation.

2.9 Tandem Language Learning/Language Exchange Partnership

There have been a number of technology enhanced distance language learning projects between groups of students and between students and teachers (Eddy 1989; Gallego 1992; Krause 1989; Ramirez 1998; Rekkedal 1989; Sanders 1997; Stevens and Hewer 1998; Wohlert 1989). Other projects have specifically involved learner partners using remote CMC learning activities (Barson *et al.* 1993; Braunstein *et al.* 2000; Chapman 1997 a,b; Duell and Wayne 1997; Leh 1997). Among these language learning situations, all involved innovative uses of technology for language learning, but none of them allowed for two-way language exchange between native speakers.

Genuine LEXPs have been formed, though. The best known of these types of projects, Tandem Language Learning, has even been described by some as a "method"(Brammerts 1996, 122, Tandem Link 2001). The appropriateness of using the terms "Tandem Language Learning" (TLL) to describe a language exchange partnership is an issue which needs to be discussed prior to surveying the available TLL research.
The words "Tandem Language Learning" were not used in the title of this case study for a very important reason. Some serious concerns can be raised against the use of these terms.
"Tandem" is a registered trademark (Calvert 1992, Tandem Link 2001) and from the Tandem® homepage there are links to Tandem® schools, materials, etc. From the "Tandem Partnership" link on the Tandem® homepage, though, it is clear that a "Tandem Partnership" is really a "language exchange partnership". In fact, it is referred to as a "Tandem Language Exchange Partnership" (Tandem Link 2001).

Since "Tandem" is a registered trademark, it would be preferable for language learning professionals not wanting to promote a trade name to refer to this type of a language learning situation as a "Language Exchange Partnership" (LEXP). Additionally, these terms are more learner-friendly because they are self-explanatory. Then, the term "Tandem" can be applied to what it actually represents, that is, a brand name for some Language Exchange Partnership schools and materials.

Be this as it may, the term "Tandem Language Learning" (TLL) has taken hold--especially among some European researchers. Positively, though, some interesting research has been completed concerning language exchange partnerships under the TLL banner (Appel 1999; Appel and Mullen 2000; Calvert 1992; Little and Brammerts 1996 cited in Schwienhorst 1997, Little *et al.* 1999). Definitions of TLL have been brought forth (Appel and Mullen 2000) which clearly show that TLL involves LEXPs as it has been stated that TLL can be used to refer to 'organized language exchanges between two language learners, each of whom wishes to improve his or her proficiency in the others' native language' (291).

Schwienhorst (1997, 2) points out that this learning situation can be placed on a continuum between classroom learning and self-instruction. Woodin (1997, 22) explains that TLL provides a link between classrooms and natural language settings. Most individuals involved with TLL research feel that success in, and the value of, TLL depends on adherence to certain principles (Appel 1999; Appel and Mullen 2000; Calvert 1992; Little and Brammarts 1996 cited in Schwienhorst 1997, Little *et al.* 1999). These principles are listed below:

Reciprocity: Both tandem partners commit themselves not only to their own learning, but to their partner's learning. Schwienhorst (1997, 2) adds that an important feature of reciprocity is bilingualism, that is, an equal amount of L1 and L2 should be used in each message by each student. Appel and Mullen (2000, 292) explain that this principle is important for maintaining motivation.

Autonomy: The learner is responsible for his or her own learning. This will involve establishing learning goals and methods (Schwienhorst 1997,2). Little (1991, 44-45, cited in Appel and Mullen 2000, 297) explains that a teacher's role changes from that of "purveyor of

information" to "counselor and manager of learning resources".

Although TLL can be transacted in person (Calvert 1992), this method has primarily been used with remote CMC. The word "remote" is purposely used here as opposed to "distance" since "Distance Learning" is associated with the linking of teachers and learners (Richards *et al.* 1992, 114). This linkage is significantly different from the autonomous (learner-to-learner) nature of Language Exchange Partnerships. Additionally, "remote language exchange" is also differentiated from face-to-face language exchange. In fact, all the TLL/LEXP projects referred to in this case study have used various combinations of remote CMC at a distance. It has been noted that it was the problem of availability of native L2 speakers which has given rise to research into e-mail language exchange (Appel and Mullen 2000, 292).

Some researchers have used the terminology of TLL (Appel, 1999; Little *et al.* 1999), while others simply refer to this learning situation as a language exchange (Donaldson and Kötter 1999; Kett 1995; Son and O'Neill 1999; St. John and Cash 1995; Woodin 1997). In the case of the LEVERAGE project, no label was applied to the method, but it was described as a situation in which 'a learner in one country contacts a learner in another, and they assist each other in the performance of a mutual task, alternately playing the role of tutor (own native language) and learner (second language) (LEVERAGE 1999a, 1).

As mentioned in the introduction, the only research that was found to deal with motivation in TLL was Ushioda (2000), which dealt only with e-mail exchange. Her study involved the "Telematics for Autonomous and Intercultural Language Learning" project (Little *et al.* 1999) which allowed for some MOO interaction, but primarily involved tandem e-mail exchanges between English/German learners. This research focused upon what the learners of German felt was intrinsically motivating about the project. Ushioda's (2000) argument was based upon the assumption that when learners' intrinsic motivational processes are engaged that autonomy is fostered (121). Ushioda (1996) cited in (Dörnyei 2001, 59) has strongly stated that 'Autonomous language learners are by definition motivated language learners'(2).

2.10 Anecdotal references to TLL/LEXP Motivation

There has not been much research specifically directed at motivation in TLL/LEXPs as the focus in this area has been on the discourse of student exchanges and error correction. Some anecdotal perceptions from the LEVERAGE project learners, though, indicate that their participation in this project was a motivating experience for them. One participant expressed that 'It's really the best way to learn languages, without this, the rest is not interesting any more'. Another participant said in regard to the access to native speakers that 'Talking to native speakers is the best way of learning a language'(LEVERAGE 1999c, 2).

A questionnaire was given to students in the "Telematics for Autonomous and Intercultural Language Learning" project, but it was not meant to provide measurable indices of attitudes or motivation (Little *et al.* 1999, 17). Ushioda (2000, 125) drew upon that data to classify the positive motivational perceptions of the students which were:

- interest and enjoyment of personal interaction with a native speaker
- access to informal everyday German
- focus on needs and interests
- mutual partnership

In a previous reference to the same project Little *et al.* (1999, 19 - 20) included other positive motivational perceptions of:

- increased confidence about taking new risks and trying out new phrases
- a genuine communicative purpose
- access to cultural exchange
- ease of talking about subject matter from areas of their personal experience

In Appel's (1999) case study of English/Spanish e-mail tandem learning, her participants confirmed the positive aspects of cultural exchange and use of everyday language and added the

following:

- frequent contact with real life in a target language country
- rise in language awareness
- dealing with aspects of the language according to one's own interests (47)

The negative features reported in Appel (1999) were:

- lack of rapport between participants
- proficiency level difference between participants
- infrequent writing
- lack of access to synchronous communication (47)

2.11 LEXPs, technology, and motivation

In the beginning of this literature review it was noted that motivation researchers in the 1990s began to focus in on the practical side of how foreign language instructors could increase their students' motivation. Dörnyei (2001) feels that '...it is questionable whether motivation research in general has reached a level of sophistication that would allow scholars to translate research results into straight forward educational recommendations.'(103). Despite this statement, Dörnyei (1994, 281) suggested earlier that integrative motivation in foreign language learners can be stimulated through activities which put the students into contact with native L2 speakers. Samimy and Tabuse (1992, 394) also refer to motivation enhancement via language exchange between JFL and ESL learners. Because of technology, language exchange activities do not necessarily have to be transacted in a face-to-face meeting.

Technology can provide a short term boost to motivation due to novelty (Warschauer 1996, 2). But given the number of TLL/LEXP projects and their duration, the comments of the participants show a depth of interest beyond novelty. In the projects involving only e-mail exchange (Appel, 1999; Little *et al.*. 1999; Son and O'Neill 1999; Woodin 1997), many participants in these projects reported that the activities they engaged in were positive learning experiences.

The combination of types of available technology can affect motivation, though. With LEXPs using CMC, the number of channels of communication and the nature of those channels can directly affect motivation. In both Appel's (1999) project, and the "Telematics for Autonomous and Intercultural Language Learning" project, students expressed a desire for more use of MOO (Appel 1999, 46) because of its real-time dimension (Little *et al.*. 1999, 52). Interestingly, in Donaldson and Kötter's (1999) experiment with German/English LEXPs using MOO exclusively, the 'participants reported (and evidenced) a marked increase in interest and, hence, motivation...The opportunity for relatively spontaneous, real-time conversation with a native informant in a MOO had undeniable appeal' (542).
Schweinhorst (1997) argues for multi communication channels, since both e-mail and MOO are written mediums:

> this may prove difficult for learners who have been learning the target language mainly within a communicative classroom where more motivation was placed on oral communication...they have the added problem of not being able to negotiate meaning or provide scaffolding the way they could in other synchronous media like the telephone

The advantages of both MOO and e-mail activities were gained in this case study with the added feature of activities using the telephone. Significantly, the addition of the telecommunication to MOO and e-mail activities (TME) allows the use of all language skill areas (reading writing, listening, speaking) within a single session.

Few projects have used the entire range of CMC/Telecommunication tools available. Exceptions are the LEVERAGE project (synchronous audio/video//text and asynchronous e-mail) and the previously mentioned 'Telematics for Autonomous and Intercultural Language Learning' project (some MOO exchange with tandem e-mail exchanges). Several TLL/LEXP projects have used the asynchronous CMC tool of e-mail (Appel 1999; Son and O'Neill 1999; Woodin

1997) and one project was found which used only synchronous CMC (MOO) in LEXPs (Donaldson and Kötter, 1999). No TLL/LEXP projects were found, however, which used the telephone system. Additionally, only a few TLL/LEXP projects were found which involved an English exchange with non Indo-European languages (Kett 1995; Son and O'Neill 1999). Ultimately, then, no projects or case studies were found which looked specifically at the motivation of an English/Japanese LEXPs using TME.

In conclusion, Woodin (1997) discusses a key point concerning LEXPs using e-mail, that is, it is a bridge between the classroom and the natural setting. It is interesting as she notes that there is a feeling of safety for learners being in their own environment (30). Most foreign language learners are in their "own" environment in two ways. Not only are they living in countries in which the majority of people speak their native language, but the foreign language classroom can also be a "safe" environment. Woodin compares the classroom environment and a more dangerous environment where real communication with native speakers can take place. The classroom is relatively safe compared to communication with a native speaker where the danger of errors in listening and speaking can lead to misunderstanding (30). Woodin clearly expresses a major point in arguing for LEXPs using TME which is:

> Whilst the communicative classroom can offer a vast range of activities designed to develop all areas of competence needed for real communication, it cannot normally provide the learner with the authentic experience of feeling the results of his or her successful or unsuccessful communication.

3. Description of case study design and the language learning situation

3.1 Participant selection

The first prerequisite for participants was that they both be intermediate level EFL and JFL learners (Cormier 2001,1) and native speakers of English and Japanese respectively. This is because the final activity in the sessions was *Free Conversation* in which both participants would speak freely on any topic with the goal of using only the L2. Of course this can be a challenge for intermediate students, therefore it was postulated that discourse in the L2 could be extended through Code-Switching (CS). This alternating between L1 and L2 was to be used when either participant felt that communication was starting to break down, or when their competence as an intermediate learner wouldn't allow them to express their ideas in the L2. Previous TLL/LEXP studies had shown that CS was likely to be used in MOO (Donaldson and Kötter 1999, 539) and e-mail (Appel 1999, 43). Since synchronous communication on the telephone was used in the sessions, CS was required even more so than with MOO which involves some time lag between message transmissions. Given the goal of trying to use the L2 as much as possible, it would be unlikely that novice learners would be successful at these activities.

A self assessment was made by the Australian participant (Sarah) using the ACTFL level descriptors. She indicated that she was at the intermediate level. Sarah has passed the lowest level of the Japanese proficiency test, which places her above the novice level, but exact correlation with ACTFL levels was not available.

The Japanese participant (Hatsuho) has passed the pre-level 2 of the Eiken test (an English proficiency test created in Japan) which correlates to intermediate-mid ACTFL level (Ogawa, 2001). For triangulation, and to determine their respective L2 levels more specifically, observations of the video of the sessions were made with a bilingual instructor of English. The levels were specified and agreed upon by the author and the English instructor who is a native Japanese speaker and near native speaker of English. It was determined that, during the sessions, the English speaking participant was functioning at an ACTFL intermediate-low level in Japanese and the Japanese speaking participant was functioning at an ACTFL intermediate-mid level in English.

It has been recommended that language exchange partners be at roughly the same levels (Appel 1999, 47; Cormier 2001,1). If there is a level difference there can be two negative consequences for the exchange. If a friendship develops, the goal of learning the L2 by the lower level partner can get pushed aside as most communication occurs in the stronger L2 (Apple and Mullen 2000, 292). On the other hand, the lower level partner may feel intimidated and completely cease from using the L2 (Appel 1999, 27).

In terms of age, Hatsuho is sixteen years old and Sarah is twenty six. A significant age gap could be a disadvantage for communication because of a "generation gap". Partners in a language exchange who are closer in age are more likely to share common interests, even though their personalities may be different. A significant age gap with diverse personalities is likely to reduce the chances of rapport being established. There is a ten year gap between Hatsuho and Sarah, but they share some common personality characteristics. Fortunately in this case, despite the age gap, the participants had excellent rapport. Rapport has been seen as being necessary for successful language exchange (Appel 1999, 49). In the case of these participants, rapport counteracted any possible communication difficulties caused by a "generation gap". Concerning Sarah's age, a person was needed in Australia who was mature and responsible. This was because a considerable number of logistical details were required to be worked out in Australia as directed from Japan. A Japanese high school student was chosen for pragmatic reasons such as living near the author's residence and having the willingness to participate.

Same sex participants were chosen to significantly reduce the possibility of romantic involvement developing. Romance would provide a motivation for language learning unrelated to the activities at hand. Additionally, this same sex pairing might help to prevent mis-communication which can occur due to gender issues.

Finally, an Australian participant was chosen specifically as the English speaking JFL student because, as was shown in the literature review, there is a high JFL learner population per capita in Australia. Since there is a large number of JFL students in Australia, there is a greater chance for replication of motivation research into LEXPs in that particular context. Additionally, there was a significant advantag in scheduling sessions as there is a minimal time difference between Australia and Japan.

3.1.2 Relevant personal history of the participants

If the sole purpose of the study had been to measure only increases in integrative motivation, ideally, neither participant would have traveled or lived in a country where the target language is spoken. This was true in the case of Hatsuho, but as will be described in her background, she does have significant target language/culture exposure within Japan. In the case of Sarah, she had lived in Japan previously. When looking for increases in integrative motivation this may be a disadvantage. Sarah is well past the "honeymoon" stage of culture shock which, for some learners, might help develop the integrative orientation in a foreign language context. There are other relevant aspects of the participants' personal histories which shall be explored.

Sarah had taken Japanese classes at high school and commented in one of the exchange sessions that Japanese was one of her favorite subjects in high school. She completed a B.S. in Biology in university but did not take any university Japanese classes. After completing her university studies, she lived in Japan for two years where she taught English. She had taken some private lessons while she worked in Japan, but the language of her work environment was primarily English. Now, a year and a half after having returned to Australia, she has begun a Masters of Education degree in Second Language Teaching. This was an advantage in that her diary entry notes were introspective and analytical. This could also be a disadvantage as she may possess motivation as a language learning professional that most students would not have. Sarah did state that she was interested in participating in this case study simply to maintain her Japanese language skills because her involvement with Japanese students studying at her university . Neither of Sarah's parents speak Japanese and she does not have regular contact with Japanese people. Finally, Sarah indicated that, if she has the chance in the future, she would like to return to Japan to visit.

Hatsuho has taken the required English classes in junior high school and is currently taking the required English courses in high school. She has taken some additional lessons from her father who is a Japanese university teacher of English and a near native speaker of English (graduate level of education). On the weekends Hatsuho's father is a minister at an international church where both he and Hatsuho have a great deal of contact with native speakers of English. Hatsuho's mother also speaks English with the native English speakers in their church. Hatsuho would like to attend university in the U.S. and become an English teacher. Even though Hatsuho has not spent time abroad, she is also a less than ideal candidate in terms of for looking for increases in integrative motivation because of her frequent contact with the language/culture group while living in Japan.

3.2 General description of the language learning situation

The participants completed ten Japanese/English language exchange sessions using telephones and computers located in Japan and Australia respectively. The first exchange session allowed the participants to interact with each other through internet or "web" cameras using CU-SeeMe software. Due to poor audio quality and other technical problems with the software, the subsequent nine sessions were conducted using the telephone (alternating L1/L2 versions of activities). The last six sessions included MOO (majority L2) exchange. All sessions were video taped in Japan to gather data as well as audio taped for the participants' review. The participants exchanged e-mail (majority L2) between sessions using their home computers. They were encouraged to correct each other's e-mail errors since error correction was more difficult during

the activities using the telephone and MOO. In addition to the data generated by the e-mail exchanges, the participants also wrote diary entries after each session was completed.

3.3 Rationale for case study research

It has been expressed that case studies can be useful in the early stages of research on a subject (Leicester 2001, 6.9). The previously noted language exchange case studies (Appel 1999; Woodin 1997) help confirm the validity of the case study approach and the fact that LEXP research is in the early stages. Case studies most commonly involve an individual participant, however this need not be the case (Nunan 1992, 76). Case studies are often longitudinal (Dörnyei 2001, 238) as was this case study since it transpired over a period of two and a half months.

The Attitude and Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) was used before and after a "treatment" which makes this a special kind of case study called single case research (Nunan 1992, 81-82). Nunan notes that single case research shares characteristics with experimental research. The experimental aspect of single case research occurs when the behavior of the participants is first measured to establish a base line. The behavior is then measured at least one more time. The second measurement is taken after the intervention of applying a treatment. The "treatment" in this case study was the formation of a LEXP using TME activities. Dörnyei has observed that many motivation theories imply that motivation is relatively stable but he argues that, since mastering the L2 may take years, that it fluctuates up and down, year to year, month to month, even and day to day (Dörnyei 2001, 16). Therefore, the longitudinal aspect of this case study allowed a search for motivation change.

3.4 The case study research design

With regard to sound motivation research design, Dörnyei (2001) recommends a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods since there are advantages and disadvantages to both. Quantitative research has the following advantages:

- it is precise
- it produces reliable and replicable data
- the results are statistically significant
- the statistics are easily generalizable for showing broader tendencies

A disadvantage of quantitative research is that when working with the averages of a large number of participants, the subjective data of an individual participant can't be properly addressed. On the other hand, qualitative methods have the disadvantages of reliability, representativeness, and generalisability (193-194).

Spolsky (2000) also recommends a triangulation of methodology such as quantitative sociolinguistic data in addition to data obtained through interviews with individual learners. Spolsky (2000) suggests this especially if measuring integrative motivation (157) . This is vital as integrativeness will be a focus in the quantitative data analysis. This type of triangulation appears to be a trend in motivation research as in a recent qualitative cross-sectional analysis of EFL motivation in various learning milieus in Japan (Kimura *et al.* 2001) it was also suggested that future motivation studies employ various qualitative methods along with obtaining quantitative numerical data (65).

In order to balance advantages and disadvantages, both quantitative and qualitative methods were employed in this case study. The participants were given the first sections of Japanese and English versions of the AMTB. The AMTB was administered before the first session and after the ten sessions had been completed.

For the major qualitative measure, individual structured one-to-one interviews were used. There are some distinct advantages of using interviews as the qualitative measure. Dörnyei (2001) has expressed that interviews "...can provide far richer data than even the most detailed

questionnaire.'(193). Spolsky (2000) quoted an interesting statement made in a conversation he had with Wallace Lambert in 1968. Lambert had said that 'the best way to learn about someone's integrative motivation was probably to sit quietly and chat with him over a bottle of wine for the evening'(160). In this vein, (sans wine) the participants engaged in interviews with this author after the end of the ten sessions. The design features of the interview questions will be discussed after examining the design and use of the AMTB.

3.4.1 Using the AMTB: its validity and reliability

The AMTB was used as a standard measure of attitude and motivation for the participants both at the pretreatment (to establish a baseline) and post-treatment stages. The administration of the this instrument at these two points was used to register any changes in the participants' motivation as a result of experiencing the LEXP sessions using TME over the two and a half month period.

As Gardner's AMTB was used as the single and major quantitative measure in this research, it is important to explain its design and use. Dörnyei (2001) explains that there are no standardized motivation tests for second language learners that can be used in all contexts. He argues that the AMTB can be used as a standardized motivation test if considerable adjustments are made to fit the context (189). Dörnyei (2001) also notes that the AMTB has very good construct and predictive ability and that the test has been successfully adapted for L2 motivation studies in many countries around the world (52). Recently Hsiao (1999) tested the factor structure of the AMTB in Taiwan and found it be valid and reliable in another language learning context other than in Canada where it was developed (167).

Two studies in particular have used the AMTB to measure the motivation of Japanese EFL students in Japan (Brown *et al.* 1996; Yamashiro and McLaughlin 1999). Brown, Robson, and Rosenkjar's study used three sections of the AMTB, but the study by Yamashiro and McLaughlin (1999) used only the first section. The first section is the longest and is composed of 63 Likert scale items. As referred to in the literature review, this case study did not involve teachers or classes, thus it was felt that it was not necessary to administer the second section of motivational intensity which has many items referring to the teacher and the foreign language class. The third section, which focuses on *My English Teacher* and *My English Course*, was also not administered.

The AMTB was adapted to the context in Japan by Robson in the study by Brown, Robson, and Rosenkjar (1996, 40). In that study, questions which dealt with attitudes toward French Canadians and European French were changed into questions asking about Americans in Japan and English speaking Americans in the United States. The AMTB was then translated into Japanese by two native-speaking Japanese and cross-checked. A copy of this Japanese version of the AMTB was obtained for this case study from McLaughlin as it had been passed to him from Brown, Robson, and Rosenkjar. Since only the Japanese version was available, this version was translated back into English by two highly skilled translators and the versions combined. This method was chosen over the "back-translation" used by others (Warden and Lin 2000, 539). This first section of the AMTB needed to be adapted to the Australian context as references to Americans (from the Robson adaptation) were changed to Australians. This change posed a possible threat to validity as will be discussed in the analysis of the results.

An English version of the AMTB was located after the AMTB pre-session administration to the participants. Despite the measures taken in translation, some discrepancies were found between Gardner's original version and the English version produced through the translation of the Japanese version. As will be dealt with in the data analysis despite this challenge to the validity of the test items (some changes in the English words from Gardner's version) it is felt that the overall measure of the participants is reasonable, but that no strong conclusions can be drawn on specific variables for the English speaking participant.

3.4.2 The structured interview design

Structured individual interviews were completed with each participant responding to the same questions (with one exception) with references to their respective L2s. The interview with the

Australian participant was completed over the telephone and the interview with the Japanese participant was completed in person with the aid of an interpreter (her father). Both interviews were audio taped for later analysis. Dörnyei (2001) notes that the advantage of the structured interview is comparability across participants, but a disadvantage is that it may be less rich in data compared to a questionnaire (238). Additionally, Oppenheim (1992) has argued that interviews are more suitable for a number of open ended questions (82). The structured interview used in this case study consisted mostly of these type of questions (see appendix ii, iii).

Dörnyei's *Framework for L2 Motivation* (2001, 113) described in the literature review (page 13) was chosen for its basic divisions of the *Language Level*, the *Learner Level* and the *Learning Situation Level*. Another strength was that research in educational psychology was a driving force in its development. This is a strength as its organization can be easily understood and applied by educators. Dörnyei (1998) explains that this motivational framework is not meant to be a model for motivation (126), yet interestingly, Gardner (2001) has included Dörnyei's framework (2001, 113) along with a number of motivation models. This framework was extremely useful in extracting the data in the interviews and analyzing it. As Dörnyei (1998) mentions the learning situation level is the most elaborate part of the framework (125). This was especially relevant to this case study as, even though the learning situation is unusual, it was a relatively simple matter to adapt Dörnyei's *Learning Situation Level* to an LEXP.

Dörnyei (2001,113) feels that the integrative/instrumental dichotomy in the *Language Level* of his framework is misleading, but it fits well with two of the variables in the AMTB. In fact this part of Dörnyei's framework was based on Gardner's theory (112). The structured interview for this case study was able to focus on the integrative subsystem as it has been described by Dörnyei (1994, 274-275). The interview questions parallel Dörnyei's framework for L2 motivation starting with the *Language Level* and focusing on the integrative subsystem components. The selected components shown below highlight the details from which the questions were derived (for a detailed comparison look at appendix i and ii).

1. Interest in foreign languages, cultures, and people:
    - satisfaction found in learning the target language, cross-cultural experience and contact with foreign language speakers

2. A desire for new stimuli and challenges:
    - related to the inherent intrinsic motivation of human beings to encounter new stimulating events and creative challenges

3. Desire to integrate into the new community:
    - desire to become integrated into the community, at least temporarily, while visiting as a tourist

(Dörnyei 1990, 65-66)

Only one question dealt with instrumental motivation as some variables concerning instrumental motivation were measured in the AMTB. Additionally, since instrumental motivation is not the focus in this case study, it was felt that it was it was not necessary to gather further data on this orientation.

Drawing from Dörnyei's *Learner Level*, interview questions dealt with causal attributions and self efficacy or how past experience with the L2 directly effects the learner's belief that he or she can reach a certain level of proficiency (Kondo 1999, 78). The need for achievement, which is related to goal setting theory (Kondo 1999, 78), was also addressed in the interview questions.

The second section asked directly about the specifics of the *Language Learning Situation*, and included questions about language use anxiety, confidence, and general feelings about the sessions. One question touching on learner autonomy asked about the "teacher-less" aspect of the sessions, but no further questions about *Teacher-Specific Motivational Components* were asked. Some questions asked the participants to compare partner (or pair) work to group and classroom work, but more questions on *Group-Specific Motivational Components* were not included. *Course-specific Motivational Components* such as interest, relevance, and satisfaction were all addressed in various questions.

The final questions dealt with some miscellaneous issues:

- whether the participants had developed a friendship
- Sarah's feelings about her interest in Japanese language, people, and culture before she lived in Japan as compared to her feelings now
- any questions they had which they felt hadn't been covered in the interview.

3.5 Session format and activity design

The session activities (see appendix iv, v, vi) had the following design features:

Dialogue:

- a personalized dialogue in which the participants had to fill in blanks with their own ideas or information;
- rather than reading, the participants were requested to memorize parts of this dialogue so that they could perform it on the telephone using a cloze version of the dialogue;
- the participants could easily complete the dialogue section using the telephone as the dialogues were controlled activities.

Discussion questions:

- six discussion questions for each session were given ahead of time with the dialogues and the students prepared their answers (in L1 and L2) prior to the session;
- the discussion questions followed the dialogue and were also completed on the telephone;
- the native speaker answered each L1 question first to model the answers, even though the non-native speaker would have already prepared answers there was still a chance of last moment modification.

In these ten sessions dialogues and discussion questions were first completed in English (since the Japanese participant was slightly stronger in the L2) then in Japanese.

Free Conversation:

After the discussion questions the students then had free conversation using CS to extend the discourse. The free conversation was the final section and no time limit was placed on the participants' conversation. The session times then varied, depending upon the amount of free conversation that the participants wanted to engage in. Four of the *Free Conversation* sections of the sessions were performed on the telephone (computer audio for session one) and the other six used MOO. Each session moved from controlled communication activities to free communication.

3.6 Data Sources

Finally, with regard to motivation research design, Dörnyei (2001) has noted that qualitative studies often include audio taped interviews, observations such as diaries or written as field notes, and authentic documents of communicative behavior such as recorded speech samples and written texts (193). Data has been gathered from all of these sources for this research as described below:

- notes written by the author from the session video recordings
- e-mail and MOO exchanges written by the participants
- participants' session written diary entries
- pre/post administrations of the AMTB
- structured individual interviews between the author and the participants

Hatsuho and Sarah were asked to use their L2 as much as possible in the *Free Conversation* activity and in their e-mail. They were not instructed, however, concerning the language that they should write their diary entries in. Sarah wrote her diary entries in English and Hatsuho did as well. As expected Hatsuho's entries contained grammatical errors, but they have not been corrected in the data analysis as it helps give an impression of Hatsuho's level of English.

These sources of data provided many perspectives on single events in the sessions as well as all the sessions over the course of the ten weeks. This was especially useful for the triangulation of the findings. Related to triangulation, the bilingual Japanese teacher of English (with an extensive background in TESOL) was consulted not only to assist in determining the level of the students, but also for the key findings of this research. She was given full access to the collected data but only reviewed the pertinent data.

4. Analysis of the results

4.1 LEXP motivation and the AMTB pretreatment and post treatment results

The only research which was located dealing with the motivation of LEXPs was that completed by Ushioda (2000, 126-27). One of her findings was that the strengths of tandem learning (focus on language use, collaborative learning, personally relevant and interesting topics) function as a strong catalyst for intrinsic motivation. Evidence of these connections will be sought after in the qualitative data analysis which addresses this specific language learning situation of the remote LEXP.

Motivation research into remote LEXPs is in its infancy, therefore it is not surprising that the potential connection between integrativeness and LEXPs using TME has not been recognized. The difficulty in firmly establishing this connection through this case study has already been alluded to. That is, that the participants already have contact with the members of the target language/ culture group. Another difficulty (to be seen in the AMTB results) is that the participants are already highly motivated for language study. Even with a language learning situation likely to engender positive attitudes, it is not likely that dramatic increases in motivation would be observed in these participants over a period of ten weeks.

Another finding from Ushioda's (2000) study was that affect is a major factor, and in this vein, tandem learning promotes the principles of autonomy and reciprocity. Affect, then, will be examined in this LEXP using Dörnyei's *Framework of L2 Motivation* (2001,113). Additionally, there will be a search for other motivation components and their characteristics in the qualitative data analysis.

In assessing the motivation of the participants, the administration of AMTB prior to the language exchange sessions provided the initial evidence that both of the participants were already quite motivated to gain higher proficiency in the target languages. To confirm their high motivation (using triangulation) some qualitative data will be brought in for comparison with the quantitative data.

Initially, the basic structure of the first section of the AMTB will be delineated. The statements in the English and Japanese versions of the AMTB are grouped under the nine variables in Table 4.1 on the following page. The number on the far right indicates the number of statements for each variable.

Attitudes toward Japanese/Australians living in Australia/Japan	(AJ/A/AJ)	-	10
Attitudes toward Japanese/Australians in General	(AJ/AG)	-	10
Interest in Foreign Languages	(IFL)	-	10
Integrative Orientation	(INT)	-	4
Parental Encouragement	(PEN)	-	10
Instrumental Orientation	(INS)	-	4
Attitudes toward Japanese/English Positive	(AJ/EP)	-	5
Attitudes toward Japanese/English Negative	(AJ/EN)	-	5
Japanese/English Class Anxiety	(J/ECA)	-	5

Table 4.1 The nine variables measured by the first section of the AMTB

The scoring of this section of the AMTB followed the procedures used by Brown, Robson, and Rosenkjar (1996, 41). The response to each statement was indicated by the participants choosing one item on a seven point Likert scale. Each item on the Likert scale was assigned a score number ranging from one for *strongly disagree* to four for a neutral response and seven for *strongly agree*. If the question was negatively worded, the scoring was reversed. Since there were 63 questions with seven points each, the highest score possible was 441 (see Table 4.2 below). Since AJ/EP and AJ/EN both measure attitudes toward learning the target language, the scores were combined in the results tabulation. The participants' results of the two AMTB administrations appear below:

	Possible	Hatsuho Pre/Post	Loss/ Gain	Sarah Pre/Post	Loss/ Gain
(AJ/A/AJ)	70	55 / 51	--4	52 / 53	+1
(AJ/AG)	70	52 / 55	+3	38 / 41	+3
(IFL)	70	70 / 69	--1	53 / 56	+3
(INT)	28	27 / 28	+1	26 / 27	+1
(PEN)	70	55 / 58	+3	10 / 15	+5
(INS)	28	19 / 21	+2	15 / 18	+3
(AJ/EP+AJ/EN)	70	70 / 70	0	64 / 67	+3
(J/ECA)	35	32 / 30	--2	22 / 20	--2
Totals =	**411**	**380/382**	**+2**	**280/297**	**+17**
Percentages =	**100%**	**Pre: 86.16%**		**Pre: 63.49%**	
		Post: 86.61%		**Post: 67.34%**	
Percentage Gains:		**Hatsuho: + .45%**		**Sarah: + 3.85%**	

Table 4.2 Baseline and post-treatment AMTB scores

4.1.1 Measure of the participants' overall motivation

The pre-session total percentages for Sarah and Hatsuho were (63.49%) and (86.16%) respectively. The factor of a "ceiling effect" was evident. That is to say the closer subjects are to the top of a scale the lesser the likelihood of significant changes. Being near the top of the scale, there was an insignificant increase of Hatsuho's total gain in motivation after the ten weeks of the exchange sessions. The gain of .45% could easily be contributed to what Dörnyei (2001, 16) refers to as motivation's "daily ebb and flow". Sarah's score, on the other hand, increased by 3.85 %. These percentages and their differential can be corroborated from the participants' background information and selected qualitative data in several ways.

In terms of an instrumental goal, Sarah wants only to maintain (not increase, necessarily) her Japanese skills. This is understandable as she has found it useful, but not necessary, for her to have high level Japanese skills for her work. In the interview Sarah explained that she thinks Japanese will play a minor role in her future career. This is because she needs it only to communicate better with the Japanese students she works with in study abroad programs. She does have an instrumental goal, but it doesn't require significant gains in proficiency. The last question in the interview with Sarah sheds some light on her current instrumental motivation. This question was exclusively for her since, unlike Hatsuho, she had spent some considerable time in the country of the target language/culture. Sarah was asked:

'Think about how interested you were about Japan (language, people, culture) before you came here. How does your interest (or lack of interest) now compare to your feelings at that time?'.

She answered that before she had gone to Japan, she was more interested in learning the

language, but now she is more interested in learning about the Japanese people and their culture. As a result of having lived in Japan, it appears that her instrumental motivation toward learning Japanese has decreased, but her integrative motivation may have grown since that time. In terms of gain after the sessions, Sarah's motivational gain overall was 8.5 times (3.85/.45) that of Hatsuho's. Perhaps the sessions, and their provision of contact with a Japanese person and her culture, was a factor in her overall gain.

In an extension to Sarah's answer to the interview question above, there is possible corroboration with the conclusion of an increase in a positive attitude toward the Japanese community. She continued in her answer to explain that: 'When I was in Japan I think I became a little bit anti- their culture, however, after these lessons I've softened up a bit again.' Unprompted in any way by the question, Sarah admitted that her feelings toward Japanese culture had become more positive as a result of having completed the sessions. Later Sarah commented that she was in the "honeymoon" stage of culture shock during her first year in Japan and bottomed into more negative feelings during the last six months of her stay. Now after having returned to Australia, her feelings toward the Japanese people and their culture have leveled out .

The triangulation above seems to indicate that, despite the threat to the validity (due to the English to Japanese to English translation of the AMTB), the overall measure of Sarah's motivation is valid. Because of that threat to validity, however, the specific variables of Sarah's AMTB results will not be investigated in detail. Next, Hatsuho's overall motivation prior to (and after) the sessions will be examined. Since only one translation was made from English into Japanese by Brown *et al.* (1996) there were no threats to the validity of the measure of the variables for Hatsuho.

Hatsuho indicated in the interview that English will play a major role in her future career as she wants to become an English teacher after she finishes university. In most circumstances, this would entail a significant increase from her current proficiency. A strong instrumental goal is also confirmed in her post-session measure of 21 out of a possible 28 for the instrumental variable .

Hatsuho's post-session scores for *Integrative* motivation (28 out of 28) *Attitudes toward Australians in General* (55 out of 70) and *Attitudes toward Australians living in Japan* (51 out of 70) are also quite high. There was some indication from session ten that Hatsuho may be entering, or in, a "honeymoon" stage with Australian culture. In the last language exchange session the national characteristics of Japanese and Australians were discussed along with their positive and negative perceptions of each others' culture. Hatsuho did not have anything negative to say about Australian culture and was even surprised when Sarah characterized some Australians as being "lazy". This author discussed this with Sarah and it was agreed that if Hatsuho was able to live in Australia for a few years she would have a more balanced perspective on Australian culture and it might mean a lowering of her AMTB results. Hatsuho's cultural "honeymoon" stage can partially explain the differential (Hatsuho's rating being 22.67% higher than Sarah's) in the measure of the participants' overall motivation.

In addition to the 'ceiling effect", another possible explanation of Hatsuho's insignificant overall increase will now be considered. As previously mentioned, Hatsuho's current opportunities for contact with the target language and culture group must be considered. It is true that Hatsuho gained her first prolonged contact with an Australian via the sessions. It is important to note, though, she currently has weekly contact with Canadians and Americans at her church. It will soon be explained in detail as it is related to the validity of some variables. For now, though, it must be pointed out that Hatsuho does not easily distinguish between the culture differences between people from various English speaking countries.

Related to this, it was noted in the description of the adaption of the AMTB for this specific situation that the Japanese version required changes in target language/culture group references. References to "Americans" were changed to "Australians" and references to "America" were changed to "Australia". Questions may be raised with regard to the validity of this change on two counts. First of all, American media (music, movies, translated books) is pervasive in Japan, thus it can be said that it has an influence on society. Additionally, there are more Americans living in Japan than Australians (Japan Statistics Bureau 1999). This could be a problem, for

example, in statement forty four below:

44. Japan has been greatly influenced by its Australian residents.

It may be more difficult for a Japanese person to form a response to this statement than it would be to form a response to the statement:

44. Japan has been greatly influenced by its American residents.

In Hatsuho's case, though, it is unlikely that she had difficulties in responding to the statement about Australians since she does not easily distinguish between the two cultures. Evidence of Hatsuho's inability to distinguish between the cultures was provided in the interview as she had only just begun to feel that Australian culture was somewhat distinct from American culture. In response to the question, 'How do you feel about Australian culture after completing the ten lessons?' Hatsuho's father translated 'She feels it's kind of similar to American culture, but she felt...she can't describe exactly what, but she says there is something distinct to Australian culture'.

Factors boosting Hatsuho's overall motivation measure have been an instrumental goal requiring much higher proficiency and a possible "honeymoon" stage with Western/Australian culture. Another significant boost to Hatsuho's motivation is the variable of *Parental Encouragement* as her score for this was quite high (58 out of 70). This could be expected as both of Hatsuho's parents speak English.

The age difference between Sarah and Hatsuho brought out a point of caution concerning the *Parental Encouragement* variable. A reasonable query could be made about the accuracy of the parental encouragement scores when used with older learners. As a case in point, it was explained in the literature review that there is great deal of pressure on Japanese high school students to pass exams in order to attend the "best" university, but that the pressure is significantly eased in university. In this environment, with some added maturity, learners may attach less value to the opinions of their parents regarding educational matters. It may even have the reverse effect as Sarah noted this in a diary entry after the sessions:

> If they [my parents] were more supportive of my studies, I think it would not positively affect my motivation at all. Actually it may even de-motivate me I think. I don't like pressure to do something if I'm not ready to do it, or if I plan to schedule it in at another time. But I think this is because of my age and independence.

This may have implications for the two previously mentioned motivation studies of EFL learners in Japan (Brown *et al.* 1996; Yamashiro and McLaughlin 1999). In both studies, section one of the AMTB (including measurement of the *Parental Encouragement* variable) was administered to Japanese university students.

In terms of the *integrative* variable both the scores of Sarah (pre: 26 post : 27 of 28) and Hatsuho (pre: 27 post : 28 of 28) increased only by one point. Certainly the "ceiling effect" comes into play here. Simply, both of them appear to already be highly integratively motivated language learners. Ultimately, this represents a minimal increase in integrative motivation after completion of the sessions. Based on these figures it cannot be claimed that Sarah's and Hatsuho's integrative motivation increased over the two and a half month period of the sessions.

The variables *Japanese/English Class Anxiety* and *Attitudes toward Japanese/English Positive/Negative* will not be delved into, but let it be noted that possible interaction between LEXPs and the classroom is an area which could be explored in future research. Finally, the AMTB does not however address the details of the participants' motivation toward the specific language learning situation they experienced. Such detailed qualitative data is readily available from the data obtained from the structured interviews, session video notes, MOO exchanges, e-mail exchanges, and diary entries.

4.2 Analysis of the qualitative results

Dörnyei's *Framework of L2 Motivation* (2001,113) was used to design the major qualitative

measure-- the post sessions structured interview. Dörnyei's *Language Level* of his framework is directly related to Gardner's theory of integrative and instrumental motivation (Dörnyei 2001, 112). Even though more specific details of that motivation were described via Dörnyei's integrative subsystem components, the *Language Level* data simply reconfirmed the AMTB results that both participants have strong integrative motivation. Because of this, the qualitative data gathered at the *Language Level* was redundant and will not be analyzed beyond the previous references to the participants' instrumental motivation.

Using Dörnyei's *Framework of L2 Motivation* (2001,113) as the structure for both the design of the post sessions structured interview, and the overall analysis of the quantitative data, was extremely useful for investigating the temporal aspect of motivation in LEXPs. The AMTB is a snap shot of motivation and cannot address the attitudes towards the specific learning situation of remote LEXPs or learner anxiety and confidence in real-time. A focus on *Language Use Anxiety* from Dörnyei's *Learner Level* provided some insights into, not only month to month and day to day motivational fluctuations, but minute to minute fluctuations in confidence based on the degree of success or lack of success in the participants' L2 communication. This "motivation in real-time" will be identified and discussed in the conclusion. For now, the data will be examined for evidence that Ushioda's findings were replicated.

4.2.1 Learning situation level

Ushioda claims that learners find tandem learning tasks intrinsically motivating (2000, 121, 127). This is due to positive features of these tasks such as the existence of personally relevant and interesting topics with a focus on language usage. The existence of these features in the data will be classified into the structure of Dörnyei's *Course-specific Motivational Components* (from the *Learning Situation Level*) below:

- Interest (in the course)
- Relevance (of the course to one's needs)
- Expectancy (of success)
- Satisfaction (one has in the outcome)

(see appendix i for full version) (Dörnyei 2001, 113)

4.2.1.1 Interest

Two topics that Sarah (S) and Hatsuho (H) found particularly interesting were the topics of "food" in session six and "fashion" in session seven. Some comments on these sessions were :

> H: Food's name is difficult to listen...very interest topic today because I love dishes...I surprised at her story..she very surprised at my story. It is good things to know about each culture. I think that "Exchange Lesson Discussion Questions" is fun....It was FUN!! FUN!!FUN!! Today's discussion topics was "fashion". It's the most interest topics till now...
> S: We (speaking on behalf of Hatsuho as well) found the lesson tonight interesting - talking about fashion's of each other's countries and the fashions which we each thought were strange...

Hatsuho noted in the interview her anticipation of some of these, and other sessions, as she said she was very interested in the topics even before the session started. She wanted to ask about Australian fashion, or the system of education. Then during the lesson she had a chance to ask Sarah about these things and she found this enjoyable. Both Sarah and Hatsuho also expressed in the interview that they experienced no boredom in the sessions. Particularly, Sarah said that she enjoyed the sessions very much since they were a lot of fun and she didn't want them to stop. She did, however, admit being bored when she was studying. Hatsuho also noted that trying to memorize everything was difficult. If the session study materials are used in other remote LEXPs then efforts should be made to create interesting preparatory activities.

4.2.1.2 Relevance

Questions were asked in the interview specifically about the relevance of the sessions, that is, if they met their personal needs. Sarah noted that having the sessions was very useful and fun. It saved her having to go somewhere for ner lessons since she could participate in the sessions from home. Because of this, the sessions were very convenient in addition to being inexpensive. She indicated that the lessons motivated her to study as she wouldn't have studied otherwise. In addressing the specifics of her L2 needs she explained in her diary:

> ...I feel like I'm only learning a little (some new vocab and some new grammatical forms), but I think that if I weren't doing these lessons, then I would be losing my Japanese skills....at least here I can maintain them and slightly increase them. Actually, even though I'm not doing as well as I thought I would, [but] I'm happy that I've learned some new vocab and grammatical structures...

Sarah said she liked the conversation practice and the discussion questions rather than just learning a particular grammar structure because it was more useful to use structure naturally in conversation. She thought the entire combination of the session activities was useful and that she learned a great deal through the session content.

Hatsuho explained in the interview that the session content was very appropriate for her and her personal interests and, as a result, she found the interaction in the conversations interesting. Her overall impression of the sessions was that they were very systematic and that the study material for the sessions was easy to proceed through.

4.2.1.3 Expectancy

The structure of the sessions helped the participants feel that they could be successful at the activities. Hatsuho thought the lesson structure was very clear because the format was easy to follow. In reference to the dialogue, she expressed she had never experienced a type of question pattern that usually has a space in which she can provide her own information. As she expressed through her father she said that, 'she can express herself in the formula of the question.'

There was a problem with the grading of session preparation material. Hatsuho noted this after session eight:

> Sarah san (Miss) looks in a trouble. Because it was not easy for her to read many difficult Japanese sentences. What a difficult discussion topics it was! ...it was difficult to think and respond about EDUCATION. But...good exercises.

Sarah noted that the content did become increasingly difficult with the Kanji and grammar. As a result, Sarah indicated that she did not achieve the personal goal of learning how to read more Kanji characters, but did achieve the goal of maintaining her Japanese level and learning more conversational Japanese vocabulary.

Prior to the sessions it was thought that the participants would be able to successfully memorize the relatively small amount of text required for the session dialogue. After having done that, it was thought that it would be possible for acquisition to occur as the participants used the memorized vocabulary and structure in meaningful interaction with a native speaker. Unfortunately, this possibility of acquisition was not able to be fully evaluated as the participants could not complete the required memorization. The difficulties in accomplishing this memorization were primarily caused by the one week interval between sessions, the busy schedule of the participants, and the non-stimulating nature of the preparatory materials.

Thus, the expectancy of success in the session preparation was low. Hatsuho did not feel very successful in the preparation for the sessions as she was very busy and she often did not have

enough time to study. She admitted in the interview, however, that she prepared for the sessions only one day in advance. Overall, she felt that she could have done more in terms of session preparation. One part of session preparation, though, was simplified for her as she could ask her father questions to give her more background on the topics before the sessions began. In the end, she felt that if she were to have had more time for session preparation; she would not have felt so pressed and she could have enjoyed herself more.

4.2.1.4 Satisfaction

Sarah made this comment in her diary, concerning her satisfaction of how she learned more Japanese:

> I've learned some new vocab and grammatical structures... and I haven't learned them because of rote memory learning (I haven't done any of that throughout these lessons), but only through using the words in the conversations...which makes me think it a much better way to learn a language anyway!...better than being lectured at and then having an exam at the end!

In the interview Hatsuho noted her enjoyment of making use of the amount of English that she has learned thus far in her English studies. Also, she appreciated learning a great deal about Western/Australian culture and its accompanying "way of thinking" by conversing with Sarah. She remarked that just the fact that she was able to complete each fifty to ninety minute lesson without any help gave her a sense of confidence and accomplishment.

4.2.2 Learner autonomy and reciprocity

Notably, the participants' LEXP learning situation and its activities transpired outside a foreign language classroom. Of all the components in the Dörnyei's *Learning Situation Level*, the *Course-Specific Motivational Components* have been entirely applicable. But like Gardner's *Evaluation of the L2 teacher* in his conception of integrativeness, Dörnyei's *Teacher-Specific Motivational Components* (below) are not applicable.

- Affiliative drive (to please the teacher)
- Authority type (a controlling teacher verses an autonomy supporting teacher)
- Direct socialization of motivation by: Modeling, Task presentation, and Feedback

Dörnyei features *Group-Specific Motivational Components* at the *Learning Situation Level* (noted on the following page) which are also are not applicable in the LEXP learning situation.

- Goal-orientedness
- Norm & Reward System
- Group Cohesion
- Classroom goal structure

(see appendix i for full version) (Dörnyei 2001, 113)

One of the key features of LEXP is that it is an autonomous and reciprocal learning situation. At this juncture the basic tandem principles of autonomy and reciprocity will be the focus at the *Learning Situation Level* since they, in effect, replace the motivational components noted above.

Data concerning both the autonomous and reciprocal nature of this LEXP will be explored, but first the data and research relating to autonomy. The respondents were asked in the interview to compare partner activities (as in the LEXP) to group and whole class activities. Sarah and Hatsuho preferred working with a partner as compared to a group or in a classroom because of personal attention and the opportunity for individual questions to be answered. In reference to autonomy they commented upon the "teacher-less" aspect of the sessions. Sarah exclaimed that it was "good without the teacher" and Hatsuho thought having no teacher present was

"easy-going". Sarah explained that she liked this "teacher-less" aspect since with only two students there were not any inhibitions caused by being afraid of making any mistakes-- or any fear of being corrected by an authority such as the teacher.
Donaldson and Kötter (1999, 536) in their LEXP MOO experiment noted that autonomy in this learning situation allows learners to set their own goals and make informed decisions on how they may reach those goals as they become more aware of the process of communication itself. Even with the structured activities of the discussion questions Sarah and Hatsuho began to do this. In later sessions (confirmed by the Japanese English teacher) the dialogue and discussion questions were often being extended by the participants as they asked their own additional questions in the L2. Hatsuho noted in the interview that the sessions motivated her in many ways, but one was that she was able to expand the perspective of what Sarah was thinking just by asking more questions.

Sarah referred to learner autonomy in a diary entry. She indicated that she thought that LEXPs in high school would be enjoyable if no one was listening in on the conversations with her partner. Then they would feel free to discuss whatever interests them. She cautioned though that it would have to be administered properly. She would not want to feel that it was compulsory in terms of being tested and having strict controls on topics.

Autonomy also effectively constrains demotivating factors. With regard to demotivation, Dörnyei (2001, 143-44) surveyed research in this area and found that a number of consecutive negative classroom experiences demotivates students. Dörnyei (2001, 145) cited studies by Christophel and Gorham (1995; Gorham and Christophel 1992) which indicated that two-thirds of the reported sources of demotivation were "teacher owned". That is to say that motivation was reduced by things that the teacher had either done or been responsible for. LEXPs can occur in a school environment, but the demotivating factors of the teacher and classroom would be significantly reduced. In this scenario, besides the exchange session material content, only the communication problems are left as a major demotives.

Regarding reciprocity, the mutual support between partners was referred to by both participants after session two and three:

> S: ...Hatsuho [was] very patient and encouraging, so that helps!. Hatsuho helped me with my Japanese a lot more in this past lesson, so I was grateful for that...
>
> H: We helped each other. She taught me English and I taught Japanese.

Through this mutual support they could keep each other's confidence up which was especially necessary when communication difficulties arose.

4.2.3 Learner level

Ushioda's (2000) study noted that affect is a major factor in remote language exchange, but she was relating affect specifically to the principles of autonomy and reciprocity which have been addressed. Affect, then, will be examined in this LEXP using Dörnyei's framework along with a search for additional motivation components and their characteristics in the qualitative data analysis.

Thus to begin this analysis, the two major divisions and subdivisions of the *Learner Level* of Dörnyei's motivational framework are noted again on the following page with explanations of some terms. In terms of using Dörnyei's *Learner Level* for qualitative motivational analysis, there has been one example of precedence. The self efficacy, causal attributions, and goal setting of bilingual and semi-lingual JFL students in Hawaii explored were studied by Kondo (1999). Goal setting is closely related to achievement, therefore Kondo used a number of components of Dörnyei's framework in her analysis.

LEARNER LEVEL

Need for Achievement

Self Confidence

- Language use anxiety
- Perceived L2 competence
- Causal attributions (the learner's perception of past L2 performance)
- Self efficacy (the learner's belief about his or her ability to reach the target level of proficiency)

These major divisions and sub divisions will be discussed as they relate to the quantitative data in separate sections which follow. Data for *Need for Achievement* was collected but the finding was simply again that they are motivated language learners as evidenced in the specific language goals they set for themselves and the achievement they feel once they reach those goals. Some previously undocumented components were found, however, under the category of *Self Confidence.*

4.2.3.1 Self confidence

As all seasoned L2 learners have experienced both successes and failures with the target language, it is important to first look at causal attributions. That is to say, their perception of their past L2 performance. In the interview the question was asked directly: 'How have you felt about your progress in English/Japanese in the past?' Sarah indicated that she hasn't felt good about her progress in Japanese in the past and in a diary entry expressed that she had felt more and more intimidated in speaking Japanese as she progressed through her high school classes. In response to this same question, Hatsuho emphasized her current accomplishments of being able to read English and think about grammar while she is speaking.

As causal attributions examines the past, self efficacy looks forward to the target level of proficiency and is comprised of the learner's belief about his or her ability to reach that level. Sarah's target level is to pass the third level of the Japanese proficiency test. At this level, learners should have the ability to engage in daily conversation. Sarah is able to accomplish this bench mark to a significant degree now. Now it is a matter for her to study and "master" the basic grammar, the 300 Kanji, the 1,500 words assigned to level three, as well as being able to write simple sentences (Meguro Language Center 2000). Sarah believes she will be able to do this within the next year. Hatsuho has a general goal of being able to tell jokes in English and believes she can reach this goal .

Perception of general L2 competence within the sessions was indicated by the participants:

> S: I like studying with her because she didn't criticize my Japanese or any of my mistakes...her English seemed to have improved since the previous lesson
>
> H: I could talk more smooth this time.

Negatively perceived L2 competence, causal attributions, and self efficacy, were major contributing factors to anxiety while using the L2 in these sessions. Language use anxiety was most evident in the participants' diary notes and e-mail exchanges in the first few sessions, but it gradually decreased in later sessions. This anxiety, however, was not readily observable. As triangulated with the Japanese teacher of English, no facial expressions from Hatsuho or tone of voice from Sarah in the sessions indicated that they were experiencing frustration. In fact, Sarah's perception of the first session using the internet camera (below) did not indicate that she noticed any anxiety in Hatsuho:

> we both made mistakes with some of the dialogue...but we didn't get upset and just continued on with the lesson. I liked that. And Hatsuho was encouraging- her laugh (giggle) showed this...We just seemed to laugh over our errors.

Despite this, tension was felt internally by Hatsuho. Internet cameras were being used in the session and perhaps the technology, along with the unfamiliarity with the session format, may have contributed to her anxiety. Concerning this first session, Hatsuho related in her diary that

she had experienced some tension.

In general, Sarah experienced more nervousness prior to the sessions, but also expressed in her diary about having some anxiety about not understanding Hatsuho's answers and frustration of not being able to express what she wanted to express. The nervousness prior to many sessions was related to her mastery of the session material as, after the fourth session, she indicated in her diary:

> I'm finding that the lessons are enjoyable, despite my slight nervousness before each one...I'm always slightly nervous, because I don't know the material as well as I would like to, and I'm not sure whether this will hinder the lesson at all.. but so far so good...Anxiety was overcome pretty quickly once the lesson started just because of the personality, I think of Hatsuho and the fact that we're both pretty laid back and there not only to learn, but have a bit of fun so the anxiety quickly went away.

Hatsuho did not indicate that she experienced anxiety prior to the sessions, but consistently referred to her difficulties with communication and her desire to continue and extend the conversation as can be seen in this statement:

> I mistake again. I couldn't respond smooth. And my grammar is in a mess...Her story is so fun so I want to extend the story more. But I can't. Because I can't think of English sentence.

The inability to fluently communicate her ideas in the L2 was a major source of tension as Hatsuho related this:

> I couldn't respond quickly because it was difficult to me to think of the idea, so I was silented. I want to respond quickly next time!

In the interview she also expressed through her father, that in the first lessons she would get uptight if there would be silence which would end the conversation, but it got better later on.

In the interview she also indicated that she felt great pleasure during L2 conversation when her communication was successful. She also enjoyed trying to understand Sarah's Japanese and expressed that the sessions were the type of study environment where she could really be herself and not worry too much about making mistakes. As she wrote in an e-mail to Sarah, 'I also had good time with you on Sunday!! I wanted to talk much more.' She also added that it was good that she could just laugh about mistakes.

A direct question was asked in the interview about the participants' confidence during the sessions. Hatsuho mentioned specifically that 'her confidence was so-so when it came to preparing for the lessons beforehand'. Sarah said in the interview that overall her confidence was high during the sessions, but then lowered as the vocabulary became more difficult in sessions four to seven. The cause of this difficulty was due to improper grading of the dialogue and discussion question material.

4.2.3.2 Motivation and extending discourse

One of the advantages of focusing on the *Learner Level* of a case study is that aspects of motivation can be observed at the individual level during real-time discourse. The aspect which will be further explored now is the state of perceived L2 competence in the sessions.The previous section noted that both the participants (but expressed more by Hatsuho) experienced negative feelings in connection with their L2 communicative competence. It is difficult to describe the exact nature of these feelings (anxiety, frustration, etc.), but it can be said that in any case they were unpleasant emotions and therefore negative, and potentially, demotivating.

First, in order to describe this relationship between communication, affect, and motivation; a framework in the form of a continuum must be provided. At one end of the communication continuum is communication between native speakers. The interlocutors are able to express their thoughts in words and understand the thoughts of the other through the words they hear. If the

content of the communication is positive, then is it a pleasant experience for the interlocutors. Nearing the other end of the continuum (even if positive content is intended) communication between native speaker and non-native speaker does not have the same direct correspondence between thoughts and words. This can cause negative affect which results from the possibility of intended meaning being mis-communicated. The possibility causing the greatest amount of negative affect is communication break down which is at the far end of the communication continuum.

In provision of some description of the communicative difficulties between Sarah and Hatsuho excerpts from their diary entries appear below:

> H: I found I'm saying different thing about her question sometimes. Actually I can't quite get what she said sometimes. I respond vague when I can't understand her story. To understand surely I need to ask again and again. Don't be shy!

Hatsuho also reported in the interview that she experienced frustration as she discovered different items of interest in their conversation and she wanted to respond in different ways to extend the conversation. Her way of reacting and responding to those items was very limited so she could not carry on the conversation further. When she could not carry on a conversation and it ended abruptly she tended to blame herself for conversation discontinuity.

Sarah said this about her communication difficulties:

> S: I couldn't say what I wanted to and I couldn't understand her Japanese answers to the discussion questions, even though I had heard her answers in English first...[although] without her answering them in English first, I wouldn't have a clue as to what she said in Japanese.

Sarah and Hatsuho did use code switching (CS) as a communication strategy, but perhaps were reluctant to use it. It is inevitable that with intermediate learners that there will be some communication difficulties, but they can be reduced with strategy training. The possibility of communication breakdown at this level of competence can almost entirely be avoided with selective L1 usage (CS). Code Switching is an important strategy of LEXPs in sustaining discourse. Appel (1999) observed that even with Tandem e-mail exchange 'code switching occurred as a device to maintain the flow of language and request an equivalent term in the L2.'(43). E-mail of course is not synchronous, real-time communication. In real-time communication CS is used even more frequently. The English/German LEXPs using MOO studied by Donaldson and Kötter (1999) offers a better comparison with this case study. The learners' L2 level in the Donaldson and Kötter study was not described beyond saying that they were at the intermediate level. It is likely that they were higher level intermediate students. They appeared to possess very good productive skills since 67% of them reported that 'expressing themselves in the target language was "seldom" a problem...'. The other 33% claimed that it was "often" difficult to find the correct words to express their thoughts (539). Half of these learners were able to use circumlocution (paraphrasing what they wanted to say in the L2) which is a more advanced skill and was not frequently employed by Sarah and Hatsuho.

Paraphrasing as a receptive strategy was also not used as frequently by Sarah and Hatsuho in comparison to the participants in the Donaldson and Kötter study. Similarly, though, repetition and translation as receptive strategies and CS as a productive strategy were used both by Hatsuho and Sarah and the English/German LEXPs. CS then is an especially useful strategy with mid to lower intermediate students. A goal then, as learners rise in level, would be to speak only in the L2 and use the productive strategies noted in Donaldson and Kötter (1999). Code switching, then, is often vital in avoiding communication break down. Even in the early sessions of this case study, there were no instances of major communication problems or break downs in communication leading to frustration. A typical example of a minor communication difficulty can be seen from the dialogue activity of session six below:

S: '...Brussel Sprouts'
H: 'Sparrow?'

Most often these "bumps" in communication were caused by listening difficulties (telephone

sound quality and dialect) and understanding individual words. After lesson six lesson, however, Sarah and Hatsuho had begun to develop a strategy for working around these difficulties by spelling out the Japanese or English words.

It is important now to note that even though *Free Conversation* discourse was easily sustained on the telephone; after session three the *Free Conversation* activities were completed using MOO for the rest of the sessions. Unlike the telephone conversations, which require transcription, the script of Moo exchanges can easily be saved as text on a computer. The participants later expressed that they enjoyed using MOO for the *Free Conversation* activity. Hatsuho indicated that ' ...it was fun to chat on line.' and Sarah provided some reasons why:

> S:...it was good using the chat line- I felt I could communicate more of what I wanted to say-basically because fluency didn't matter- I could think about my grammar a bit more and quickly look up in the dictionary for the words I didn't know...it was also handy to be able to copy the conversation into a word document and print it out, for review later. It was fun, and actually, I think that the *Free Conversation* ran more smoothly than it has over the phone.

A sample of a MOO exchange and accompanying CS between Sarah and Hatsuho is given on the following page. In this example it shows how positive communication affected their emotions (English translation appears in brackets).

> S: konbanwa!!!!!!!!!!! (good evening).....gomen ne, ima waratteimasu (sorry I was laughing)
>
> H: WOW!!..I really surprise..I'm laughing!!!!!!hahaha!!

Their discussion about the possibility of meeting at a youth church camp in the Philippines next year shows some more examples of code switching:

> S: Rainen ni Philippines ni ikitai desu. SEP (Summer Education Program) de volunteer staff (shain) oshitaidesu. (I want to be a volunteer staff at SEP next year)
>
> H: Oh!! next year?? as a stuff?? Watashi mo ikitai! (I want to go too) and I want to meet U!!
>
> S: neeeeeeeeeeeeeeeeee me too watashimoo!!!!!!! ahhh anata ni aitaidesu (yeah... I want to meet you, too) hai, gambaremashouka? (Yes, we should try our best, shouldn't we?)
>
> H: next year ikimasyou! (let's go)...
>
> S: Tooooottemo tanoshkatta!! (that was really fun)

In conclusion of this section, a post-script will be given concerning Sarah and Hatsuho. These two remote Language Exchange Partners became friends. It is not clear yet if they will be able to meet in the Philippines next summer. In an unbelievable turn of events, however, Hatsuho was selected as one of the three students chosen from her school to go to Australia on a one month study abroad program (all expenses paid except airfare). Sarah and Hatsuho will have a chance to meet face-to-face this summer*. The research questions will be addressed along with a summary of the main findings and implications of this case study in the section which follows.

*Note: as it turned out they came within 50 kilometres of each other one Saturday, but neither could secure transportation that day.

5. Overview of the main findings

5.1 Research questions and answers

The first research question posed in the introduction to this case study was:

1. What motivational components are associated with remote LEXP activities?

To assist in answering this question, another question to consider is 'What is the pedagogical function of remote LEXPs?' Woodin (1997) provides an answer to this question as she notes that the use of e-mail between language exchange partners provides a bridge between the classroom and the natural setting. She also notes that this is a necessary bridge because the classroom is deficient in providing learners with the 'authentic experience of feeling the results of his or her successful or unsuccessful communication.'(30).

Drawing from Woodin's perceptions of remote LEXPs, if we see remote LEXPs as a bridge from the classroom to natural settings we would want to strengthen that bridge by literally opening up more lines of communication. That is why this case study used the combination of Telecommunication, MOO, and E-mail to provide communication opportunities using all of the language skills via synchronous and asynchronous communication. Successful communication between remote LEXPs should not be constricted by a limited number of channels of communication, or by having to choose either asynchronous or synchronous communication.

Ushioda's (2000, 121) suggestion is that remote LEXP activities are intrinsically motivating (provide interesting tasks) to the learners who participate in them. The participant's comments concerning interest, relevance, success, and satisfaction towards the session activities in this case study confirmed Ushioda's observation of intrinsic motivation. Another aspect of Ushioda's findings was confirmed as the participants' comments revealed that they experienced positive feelings derived from the principles of autonomy and reciprocity. They enjoyed being free from teachers, classes, and a constrictive curriculum. In comparison to traditional learning situations, their anxiety was significantly reduced. They also enjoyed the the sense of fairness that comes with reciprocity and the support of a fellow language learner struggling to learn an L2.

This case study found that emotions other than those noted above were involved with the remote LEXP studied. Some other positive emotions were enjoyment and a sense of accomplishment. Some negative emotions were anxiety and lack of self confidence. What is it that determined those emotions? Woodin (1999), again, answers that these emotions are derived from 'the results of his or her successful or unsuccessful communication.'(30).

Imagine then, two remote language exchange partners who have all of the technological tools to help them communicate successfully. They are using stimulating learning materials and they are isolated from the possible demotivating factors of classes and teachers. It is then that motivation, as it is related to real-time communication, becomes readily apparent. Holistically, of course, their history as language learners and future language learning goals are factors. But at that moment of attempted communication it is only the two of them. It is their self confidence, their perceived competence, and their anxiety. The proportioning of positive and negative affect from then on rests upon the success or lack of success in their communication.

At the point of communication it is only their language competence and strategies which can help language exchange partners feel like they are communicating successfully. The strategies are the receptive strategies of translation, repetition, paraphrasing and the productive strategies of code switching and circumlocution. In addition, strategies for extending discourse help supply learners in LEXPs with a sense of pleasure in their communication. Interestingly, the affect directing their motivation is far more immediate than month to month and day to day. It is minute to minute. Cumulative unsuccessful communication between remote language exchange partners certainly would be demotivating, yet the converse is also possible.

5.2 Implications

One of the implications of the findings above is that more research should be invested in remote LEXPs, because of their importance as a 'bridge to the natural setting' (Woodin 1999, 30). Motivation research in remote LEXPs is especially vital. To reiterate the role of motivation in L2 learning, Yamashiro and McLaughlin (1999, 9) agree with Dörnyei (1998) that motivation is the most important factor affecting language learning proficiency. High motivation is necessary, especially given the tremendous investment of time and effort required to gain proficiency in a foreign language. High motivation can even compensate for a lack of aptitude (Dörnyei 1998, 117).

Beyond intrinsic motivation, this case study identified self confidence (language use anxiety and perceived L2 competence) as a major real-time motivational component. More research needs to focus on self confidence during real-time communication. Some initial description was made of this component, but more investigation is needed with regard to communicative strategies and especially those which extend discourse. Based entirely on research literature it became apparent that a traditional component, integrative motivation, is also closely associated with remote LEXPs.

Instrumentally motivated learners can form a LEXP, in fact the two participants in this case study were instrumentally motivated. The emphasis of many motivation researchers (Dörnyei 1990, 62; Gardner 1985a, Oxford and Shearin 1994, 15), however, has been upon integrative motivation because the probability is higher that integratively motivated learners will be more successful in learning an L2. LEXPs then provide (the otherwise unavailable) native speaker contact which has the potential to fuel integrative motivation. Intermediate students who have had no contact with members of the the target group would be ideal subjects for investigation into the integrative motivational development in LEXPs. Interesting results are likely to be uncovered with participants who show promise in gaining integrative motivation like the Japanese EFL students observed by Berwick and Ross (1997,197) who were beginning to expand their motivational horizons. Positive results may even be obtained with those students who do not seem to show promise such as those who are likely to drop out of high school, college, and university JFL classes (Kondo 1999, 84; Marriott *et al.* 1994, 91).

In summary of the findings and implications, intrinsic motivation was confirmed in LEXPs and self confidence during real-time communication was identified and posted for further research along with integrative motivation.

5.3 Recommendations

Some pedagogical, organizational, and technological recommendations will be made for researchers and instructors who are interested in remote LEXPs. Many of these recommendations are intertwined, but an attempt will be made to separate some aspects. Overall, growth of remote LEXPs (and research into them) depends on:

- the partnering of educational institutions around the world through effective organizational structures (Ushioda 2000, 122);
- making remote language exchange partnerships available to as many learners as possible (at least those at the intermediate level and above);
- pedagogically sound activity design;
- using the highest communication technology possible (balancing financial feasibility and quality).

The findings indicate that confidence was a major motivational component in real-time with possible cumulative repercussions. Aspects which contributed to this draining of confidence was a lack of pre-session preparation, uninteresting study materials, and flaws in activity design. For instructors wanting to use the same (or similar) activity format, the following recommendations

are made for reducing learner anxiety:

- allow two weeks between sessions so students have more time to absorb the material;
- develop interesting in-class activities which help the students learn the expressions prior to the sessions;
- provide icons or pictures which are then associated with the expressions as a possible learning aid for the session dialogue. Then, through practice with the images and gradual reduction of text, the icons completely replace expressions in the session dialogue. See example of icons below:

What's your favorite kind of fruit =

Figure 5.1 Example icons for session dialogue

- do role play exchanges in class;
- ensure proper grading of session material;
- provide communication strategy and discourse extension training;
- have students use error correction in e-mail, but allow it to be optional in the synchronous sessions;
- use MOO for *Free Conversation* in earlier sessions, but phase it out to the point that MOO would only be available during telephone contact to spell words that cannot be understood otherwise.

As noted previously, case studies cannot be generalized to a larger population. The participants in this case study in particular had very "easy going" personalities which helped compensate for a slight difference in their L2 level and significant age difference. Therefore the following recommendations are made for participant selection, pairing, and pair maintenance:

- use LEXPs with intermediate level learners only in high school, college, or university;
- limit group size initially for the sake of practicality in logistics and research;
- ensure same or similar age/sex/L2 level pairings;
- make sure instructors available at both sites for individual counsel.

Next are some recommendations for research:

- use Gardner's original English AMTB as pretest and posttest for motivation changes (some careful rewording may be required, depending on the English culture groups, also the effect of parental encouragement should be considered);
- take the interview questions from this research and adapt them to a questionnaire;
- attempt investigations of larger numbers of subjects for statistical validation.

Finally are the institutional and technical recommendations:

- set up LEXP programs between institutions which already have sister school relationships;
- use LEXPs prior to student exchanges and schedule the sessions as extra-curricular activities;
- note that scheduling can be more difficult with significant time zone differences between institutions;
- limit group size by making LEXPs available only to those going on a student exchange, this would limit use of computers and the telephone (remembering that international call prices have been reduced in recent years) ;
- use internet conferencing instead of telephones for large classes;
- use live video in the sessions, if possible, since the learners in this study and others (Leverage 1999b) have noted the advantages of seeing facial expressions, body language and gestures;
- individuals scheduled from small groups could use ISDN video phones (more expensive, but more reliable than internet video);
- use the"poor man's ISDN", that is a phone line for a quality audio connection and internet video (100% video quality setting) with MOO.

5.4 Conclusion

These were the basics of this language learning situation. The learners were situated over 7000 kilometers apart and they were studying two foreign languages with the greatest possible distance. In terms of their virtual distance, technology had made them close, and both being highly integratively motivated, they were also close psycholinguistically. Now, whether this scenario can decrease psycholinguistic distance (via increases in motivation) in other language learners remains to be seen in further research.

All tolled, they logged approximately five hours of structured real-time language learning exchange activities along with another approximate five hours of real-time, code switched, *Free Conversation*-- accomplished entirely without the aid of a teacher. Added to that, more learning opportunities ensued as they sent and corrected each others' weekly e-mail during the sessions' ten week duration. Through it all they ventured beyond the often safe confines of the classroom to expose themselves to the dangers and triumphs of their own authentic L2 communication with a native speaker. Ultimately, they connected and became friends. Finally, as if by fate, this summer they will transcend the physical distance and meet face-to-face.

The nineteen nineties saw the paralleled development of CMC and language exchange research in Europe. Accompanying these developments was a renewal of motivation research. What does the future hold? Technology proceeds in blinding acceleration. Communication technology is now manifesting itself in forms akin to those seen in the movie, "The Matrix". Scientists are now working on a fully immersive internet, that is, virtual face-to-face communication (Kaplan 2001). Using computer generated 3D models of the participants' faces (avatars) users can enter a 3D virtual office (telecubicle) and have a conversation. Of course the "bugs" need to worked out, but it is a technical eventuality. Concerning this aspect of being there, yet not being there, the developers feel that this "immersipresense" may be be too much for some people to handle. Remote language exchange partners with techno-phobic inclinations may be forced to revert to the old technology of telecommunication, MOO, and e-mail.

Whatever technology may be available in the future, educators and researchers must now seriously consider remote Language Exchange Partnerships and the promise they hold for motivating their students and subjects. It is hoped that along with Ushioda (2000) this research will be considered to be one of the initial attempts in motivation research of remote LEXPs.

Appendix i

Dörnyei's Framework of L2 Motivation

LANGUAGE LEVEL	Integrative Motivational Subsystem Instrumental Subsystem
LEARNER LEVEL	Need for Achievement Self-confidence • Language Use Anxiety • Perceived L2 Competence • Causal Attributions • Self-Efficacy
LEARNING SITUATIONAL LEVEL	
Course-Specific Motivational Components	Interest Relevance Expectancy Satisfaction
Teacher-Specific Motivational Components	Affiliative Drive Authority Type Direct Socialization of Motivation • Modeling • Task Presentation • Feedback
Group-Specific Motivational Components	Goal-orientedness Norm & Reward System Group Cohesion Classroom goal structure

(Dörnyei 2001,113)

Dörnyei's Integrative Subsystem Components

1. Interest in foreign languages, cultures, and people:
   - satisfaction found in learning the target language, cross-cultural experience and contact with foreign language speakers

2. Desire to broaden one's view and avoid provincialism:
   - to be cosmopolitan and up-to-date, as well to avoid provincialism and isolation
   - this view is related to the high esteem for the culture and the thoughts that the foreign language conveys, accordingly it is related to dissatisfaction with one's own culture.

3. A desire for new stimuli and challenges:
   - this is related to the inherent intrinsic motivation of human beings to encounter new stimulus events and creative challenges
   - this can also include wanting to become friends with people who speak the foreign language and wanting to be a tourist in a country where the foreign language is spoken

4. Desire to integrate into the new community:
   - this is the desire to become integrated into the community (at least temporarily) with the help of the target language, this can be articulated as the desire to spend some time abroad

(Dörnyei 1990, 65-66)

Appendix ii

Individual Structured Interview Questions

General Questions

1. How do you feel about....
   - i. ... learning new things?
   - ii ... challenges?
   - iii ... learning about foreign people?
   - iv ... learning about foreign cultures?
   - v. ... learning foreign languages?
   - vi ... traveling to Japan/Australia in the future (if you could)?

2. Will your English/Japanese skills play a role in your future career? If so, how?

3. How have you felt about your progress in English/Japanese in the past?

4. If you have any future goals in learning English/Japanese, please tell me about them.

5. Given the big difference between the English and Japanese languages, how can a person reach their goals in learning these languages?

6. What kind of effect (if any) have the ten language exchange sessions had upon your motivation towards studying English/Japanese?

7. How successful are you in reaching the personal goals (besides learning English/Japanese) that you set for yourself?

Appendix iii

Individual Structured Interview Questions

The Distance Language Exchange Sessions

1. How did you feel about....

   i ... having contact with a native speaker in the sessions?
   ii ... Australian/Japanese culture after completing the 10 sessions?
   iii ... the session structure?
   iv ... the session method?
   v ... the session content?
   vi ... the session difficulty?
   vii ... working with a partner as opposed to with a group?
   viii ... working with a partner as opposed within a classroom?
   ix ... the "teacher-less" aspect of the sessions?
   x ... any anxiety you may have had in the sessions?
   xi ... your confidence in the sessions?
   xii ... being able (or not being able) to talk about your interests during the session?
   xiii... How did you feel about error correction?
   xiv ... the sessions' relationship (if any) to your personal goals?
   xv ... the sessions and your needs as a language learner?

2. Preparation for the dialogue part of the session required some memorization to "fill in" the blanks. How successful did you feel you were in meeting this requirement of session preparation? What factors affected the degree of your success or lack of success? Is there anything that would have made session preparation easier?

3. In general, how would you describe your feelings during the sessions?

4. If you have an overall impression of the sessions, how would you describe that impression?

5. Please relate these feelings to the sessions:

   frustration
   interest
   curiosity
   boredom
   enjoyment

6. Do you feel that you have become friends with Sarah/Hatsuho?

7. Any comments about anything?

8. (for Sarah only) Think about how interested you were about Japan (language, people, culture) before you came here. How does your interest (or lack of interest) now compare to your feelings at that time?

Appendix iv

Exchange Session Seven Dialogue (English)

_____ = blanked for session.

_____ = learners fill in their answers before the sessions

J: Do you have a favorite color or pattern for clothes?	J:
E:	E: Yes, I like to wear _____ . No, I don't.
J: How about a favorite material or type of clothing?	J:
E:	E: I like _____ . I don't really have any favorites.
J: Tell me about some popular fashion in Australia now.	J:
E:	E: _____ is/are popular now.
J: Tell me about what you usually wear at work.	J:
E:	E: I like to wear _____ at work.
J: What do you like to wear when you are relaxing?	J:
E:	E: I like to wear _____ when I'm relaxing.
J: What is something you don't like to wear?	J:
E:	E: I don't like to wear _____ .
J: When do you wear warm clothes in Australia?	J:
E:	E: We usually wear warm clothes _____ .
J: What kind of clothes do you like to wear in summer?	J:
E:	E: I like to wear _____ in summer.
J: So, lets do the discussion questions, then you can ask me about Japanese clothing and fashion.	J:
E:	E: Okay.

Appendix v

Exchange Session Seven Dialogue (Japanese)

_____ = blanked for session. _____ = learners fill in their answers before the sessions

Note: the English-speaking participant did not use the alphabetized form of Japanese at anytime.

ふく　いろ　がら
E: あなたの好きな服の色とか柄がありますか？
Anata no sukina fuku no iro toka gara ga arimasuka?
J:

きじ　かたち
E: 好きな服の生地や形はありますか？
Sukina fuku no kiji ya katachi wa arimasuka?
J:

いま　　りゅこう
E: 日本で今どんなファッションが流行していますか？
Nihon de ima donna fasshion ga ryukou shiteimasuka?
J:

がっこう　　き
E: あなたは学校へはいつも何を着ていますか？
Anata wa gakkoo e wa itsumo nani o kiteimasuka?
J:

とき
E: リラックスしている時には何を着たいですか？
Rirakkusu shiteiru toki ni wa nani o kitai desu ka?
J:

E: 着たくないものは何ですか？
Kitakunai mono wa nan desuka?
J:

あつぎ
E: 日本ではいつ厚着をしますか？
Nihon dewa itsu atsugi o shimasuka?
J:

なつ　　ふくそう
E: 夏にはどんな服装をしたいですか？
Natsu ni wa donna fukusoo o shitai desuka?
J:

はな
E: それでは。話しあいをしましょう。
Sore dewa. Hanashiai o shimashoo.
J:

E:

ふく
J: はい_____の服が好きです。いいえ、ありません。
Hai _____ no fuku ga suki desu. Iie, arimasen.
E:

とく
J: _____が好きです。特にありません。
_____ ga suki desu. Toku ni arimasen.
E:

りゅこう
J: _____が流行しています。
_____ ga ryukoo shite imasu.
E:

き　がっこう
J: 私は_____を着て学校にいきます。
Watashi wa _____ o kite gakkoo ni imasu.
E:

とき
J: リラックスしている時には_____を着たいです。
Rirakkusu shiteiru toki ni wa _____ o kitai desu.
E:

J: _____は着たくないです。
_____ wa kitakunai desu.
E:

あつぎ
J: 私たちは_____に厚着をします。
Watashitachi wa _____ ni atsugi o shimasu.
E:

なつ
J: 私は夏に_____を着たいです。
Watashi wa ni _____ o kitai desu.
E:

J: いいですよ。
Ii deshyoo.

Appendix vi

Exchange Session Seven Discussion Questions (English andJapanese)

1. What kind of fashion do you think is funny or strange?
2. What kind of clothes look good on you?
3. What would you wear if you went with your friends to an expensive restaurant?
4. If you could afford any kind of clothing, what would you like to buy?
5. What kind of men's fashion do you like?
6. Can you think of a person who dresses well, who?

しゅるい ふくそう きみょう おも
1．どんな種類の服装をおかしいとか奇妙だと思いますか？
Donna shurui no fukusoo o okashii to ka kimyoo dato to omoimasuka?

じぶん にあ おも
2．自分にはどんな服が似合うと思いますか？
Jibun ni wa donna fuku ga niau to omoimasuka?

とも こうぎゅう い
3．もし友だちと高級レストランに行くなら、何を着ていますか？
Moshi tomodachi to koogyuu resutoran ni ikunara, nani o kiteimasuka?

か か
4．もしどんな服でも買えるとしたら、何を買いたいですか？
Moshi donna fuku demo kaeru to shitara, nani o kaitai desuka?

だんせい
5．男性のファッションでは何が好きですか？
Dansei no Fasshion dewa nani ga suki desuka?

し だれ
6．服のセンスのいい人を知っていますか？誰ですか？
Fuku no sensu no ii hito o shitteimasuka? Dare desuka?

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